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The Relationship between Supervision, Job Satisfaction, and Burnout among Live-In and Live-On Housing and Residence Life Professionals

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SUPERVISION, JOB SATISFACTION, AND BURNOUT
AMONG LIVE-IN AND LIVE-ON HOUSING AND RESIDENCE LIFE PROFESSIONALS

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Louisiana State University and
Agricultural and Mechanical College
in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

in

The College of Human Sciences and Education

by
Tracy L. Reed
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December 2015

I dedicate this dissertation to my FAITH and my FUTURE. This process has proven to me that there is no limit to the things I can achieve through the power of God that lives and works within me.

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ABSTRACT

The current study investigated the relationship between supervision, job satisfaction, and burnout among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals. The literature review consists of empirical research for each construct presented (supervision, job satisfaction, and burnout). The study sample consisted of *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals employed at colleges and universities across the United States and abroad. Multiple regression and Multivariate analyses were used to answer specific research questions. Results confirmed that there was a statistically significant relationship between supervision, job satisfaction, and burnout. Findings are thoroughly reviewed and compared to previous research in the field. Lastly, implications are presented along with ideas for future research directions.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

A helping profession can be defined as any profession that addresses the problems of a person's psychological, intellectual, emotional or spiritual well-being (Corey, Haynes, Moulton, & Muratori, 2010). Some examples of such professions include psychotherapy, psychological counseling, social work, education, life coaching and ministry. These professions are specifically characterized by the kind of helping relationship that develops during the process of the work with the individuals that receive services (Rogers, 1961). In chapter 3 of his classic book, *On Becoming a Person: A Therapist's View of Psychotherapy*, Carl Rogers discusses the characteristics of a helping relationship. Rogers defines a helping relationship as one "in which at least one of the parties has the intent of promoting the growth, development, maturity, improved functioning, or improved coping with life of the other" (Rogers, 1961, p. 39-40). With this definition in mind, it can be argued that the Student Affairs profession fits into the category of a helping profession. More specifically, because of the particular job responsibilities of a *live-in* or *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professional, this field should be considered a helping profession (Belch, Wilson, & Dunkel, 2009).

Entry level positions in Housing and Residence Life are considered a gateway for new professionals to get into the field of Student Affairs (Frederiksen, 1993). Frederiksen (1993) noted, "The Housing and Residence Life career field has become a primary provider of basic Student Affairs and professional work experiences and in doing so offers an excellent experience foundation for other career fields within Student Affairs" (p. 176). Job responsibilities which include (1) providing out of class opportunities for academic enrichment, (2) assisting students with personal growth and social/civic development, and (3) being readily available to respond to

students' emergencies or crisis situations, could situate the Student Affairs functional area of Housing and Residence Life as a helping profession (Belch et al., 2009).

Although Housing and Residence Life is considered a gateway into the Student Affairs profession, research has shown there are some significant staffing issues within the field (Belch & Mueller, 2003). Belch and Mueller (2003) identified several important staffing issues in the field such as (1) policies regarding quality of life, (2) expectations that staff live in or very near the communities in which they work/oversee, and (3) non-standard work hours and expectations such as on-call duty. These issues have had a significant impact on Housing and Residence Life professionals around the country. They have also affected the profession by contributing to a shortage of entry level residence life professionals willing to begin their careers in this area (Belch & Mueller, 2003). Additionally, these staffing issues may be contributing to professional burnout among staff, which may result in these professionals leaving the area of Housing and Residence Life to work in other areas of Student Affairs administration that seem to be less stressful.

Theoretical Background

Supervision

Supervision of professional staff in organizations is critical because it is the employees who are responsible for carrying out the goals and objectives of the organization (Janosik, Creamer, Hirt, Winston, Saunders, & Cooper, 2003). Supervision is a process that provides support, resources, and skill development for professional staff in carrying out these goals. In their 1997 work, *Improving Staffing Practices in Student Affairs*, Winston and Creamer define supervision as an interactive process designed to support staff as they work to promote organizational goals, and to enhance personal and professional development (Winston &

Creamer, 1997). Just as in many other professional helping fields, within Student Affairs Administration, supervision can be one way to ensure quality work performance, professional development, and personal growth of staff members. In order for supervision to be effective, it is imperative for both administrators and employees to be aware of the elements of effective supervision and to use a model of supervision that meets the needs of both the supervisor and the supervisee (Arminio & Creamer, 2001).

Professional supervision in the helping professions (i.e., counseling, social work, teaching, nursing) involves a structured relationship between two or more professionals. In this relationship, professional support and guidance is provided regarding the effective management of the helping relationships formed during the process of the work being practiced (Hawkins & Shonet, 2006; Haynes, Corey, & Moulton, 2002). The primary purpose of supervision is to provide the professional being supervised an opportunity to explore different areas of both professional and personal growth and development in their professional practice. Generally, supervision is provided by a more experienced member of the profession, though there are exceptions (e.g., group supervision for school counselors). Supervision includes, but is not limited to, aspects such as (1) evaluating and reflecting on professional strengths and areas for improvement (2) discussing successful outcomes in work with clients and what led to those successes (3) exploring practice/ethical issues and complex client situations and processing possible solutions, and (4) enhancing the development of new professional practice skills, methods, and knowledge (Smithells & Smithells, 2011).

The process of supervision in the helping professions can take a variety of forms. Typically, supervision involves the supervisor and supervisee meeting regularly for scheduled, in-depth, one on one discussions about the supervisee's work and professional practice.

Supervisors are usually professionals in the field who have more knowledge, skills and experience in the practice than the professionals they are supervising. The task of the supervisor is to provide a supportive and structured relationship that will facilitate the professional and personal growth and development of supervisee's professional practice (Smithells & Smithells, 2011). Some examples of effective models for professional supervision include face to face one on one supervision, face to face group supervision (including more than one supervisee), and live supervision in which the supervisor observes the supervisee while he or she is actively engaged in work performance and offers guidance and critiques following the observation. Each of these methods can be used to develop an effective and structured model of supervision that can achieve the goals of professional supervision and benefit both the supervisor and supervisee in the process (Hawkins & Shonet, 2006; Haynes et al., 2002).

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction can be loosely defined as the level of contentment a person feels with all or particular aspects of their job (Locke, 1969). Employee satisfaction is essential to the success of any business or organization. If employees are not satisfied or at least content with their jobs, they are more likely to leave the position, which directly affects the organization and the individuals it serves (Branham, 2005; Timpe, 1986). There have been numerous studies that have examined the relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover. The vast majority of this research has shown that job satisfaction is a consistent predictor of employee turnover intentions. However, what makes a job satisfying or dissatisfying does not depend only on the nature of the job, but also on the expectations that employees have of what their job should provide (Mahdi, Zin, Nor, & Sakat, 2012). Within the extensive body of literature on job satisfaction in the workplace, there are numerous theories that attempt to explain the concept of

job satisfaction. According to E. A. Locke (1969), one of the earliest researchers to systematically explore the concept, job satisfaction is defined as a “pleasurable, emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job as achieving or facilitating one’s job values” (p.317). Based on Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs theory, some researchers have suggested that job satisfaction should be approached from the perspective of need fulfillment (Lu, While, & Barriball, 2005). As a result, no theory of job satisfaction seems to be as extensively researched or as widely applied as Herzberg’s Two-Factor Theory of Job Satisfaction. This theory, developed in 1959 by psychologist Fredrick Herzberg and his colleagues Mausner and Snyderman, attempted to determine which factors in an employee’s work environment caused satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959). Herzberg found that factors causing job satisfaction (*motivators*) were different and separate from the factors causing dissatisfaction (*hygiene factors*). Herzberg’s theory concluded that organizations must not only provide *hygiene factors* to avoid employee dissatisfaction, but they should also provide *motivators* to the work itself in order for employee’s to be truly satisfied with their jobs (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959).

Burnout

The construct of burnout was first introduced by Clinical Psychologist Herbert Freudenberger in the early 1970s (Freudenberger, 1974). He defined *burnout* as a state of fatigue or frustration that resulted from professional relationships that failed to produce the expected rewards (Freudenberger, 1974; Freudenberger & Richelson, 1980). Freudenberger’s early research was based on the experiences of people working in human services and health care – occupations in which the goal is to provide aid and care for people in need. This type of work was characterized by emotional and interpersonal stressors which lead to emotional depletion

and loss of motivation and commitment to their job responsibilities (Freudenberger, 1974; Freudenberger & Richelson, 1980).

Around the same time Freudenberger was exploring the concept of burnout, social psychological researcher Christina Maslach and her colleagues came across the term while interviewing human service workers in California (Schaufeli, Leiter, & Maslach, 2009). During the interviews, Maslach learned these workers often felt emotionally exhausted from the nature of their work. She also discovered they frequently developed negative perceptions or feelings about their clients/patients and they experienced crises in professional competence as a result of the emotional turmoil (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 2011). As a result of these observations, Maslach later defined burnout as a psychological syndrome involving emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and a diminished sense of personal accomplishment that occurred among various professionals who work with other people in challenging situations (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach, 2003).

Maslach's Dimensions of Burnout

Emotional exhaustion is the feeling of being emotionally overextended and exhausted by one's work. This represents the basic stress dimension of burnout which causes individuals to feel mentally drained and physically depleted of energy. Individuals experiencing emotional exhaustion also have trouble facing their day to day work responsibilities and sometimes struggle with finding ways to replenish themselves both at work and in their personal lives (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998). *Depersonalization* represents the interpersonal dimension of burnout. It refers to a negative and detached response to others. Depersonalization is usually a common response for individuals experiencing emotional exhaustion; and eventually turns into dehumanization of others - particularly in the work environment. The third dimension of burnout as described by

Maslach is reduced *personal accomplishment* (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998). This dimension represents the self-evaluation dimension of burnout and refers to a decline in an individual's feelings of competence and productivity at work. Reduced personal accomplishment causes employees to experience a sense of inadequacy in their work performance. Feelings of reduced personal accomplishment can grow into a sense of low self-efficacy and depression. This can result in the employee experiencing difficulty finding satisfaction in the work environment and can also cause difficulty coping in their personal lives as well (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998).

Statement of the Problem

Within the area of Housing and Residence Life, both job satisfaction and burnout are significant issues contributing to a negative impact on *live-in* and *live-on* professionals in the field (Frederiksen, 1993; Belch & Mueller, 2003). According to relevant literature in the field of Student Affairs administration, there is little research that focuses specifically on how job satisfaction and burnout impact Housing and Residence Life professionals. Moreover, there seems to be no research that addresses the importance of effective professional supervision and its connection to job satisfaction and burnout among these professionals. To this end, the current study seeks to examine the relationship between supervision, job satisfaction, and burnout among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals and the resulting effect on student services in higher education.

Research Questions

The researcher attempted to answer the following research questions in the proposed study:

Research Question One: Is there a statistically significant relationship between the level of supervision received as measured by the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* and job satisfaction as

measured by the *Job Satisfaction Survey* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals?

Research Question Two: Is there a statistically significant relationship between the level of supervision received as measured by the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* and emotional exhaustion as measured by the Emotional Exhaustion subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals?

Research Question Three: Is there a statistically significant relationship between the level of supervision received as measured by the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* and depersonalization as measured by the Depersonalization subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals?

Research Question Four: Is there a statistically significant relationship between the level of supervision received as measured by the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* and personal accomplishment as measured by the Personal Accomplishment subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals?

Research Question Five: Is there a statistically significant relationship between emotional exhaustion as measured by the Emotional Exhaustion subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* and job satisfaction as measured by the *Job Satisfaction Survey* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals?

Research Question Six: Is there a statistically significant relationship between depersonalization as measured by the Depersonalization subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* and job satisfaction as measured by the *Job Satisfaction Survey* and among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals?

Research Question Seven: Is there a statistically significant relationship between personal accomplishment as measured by the Personal Accomplishment subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* and job satisfaction as measured by the *Job Satisfaction Survey* and among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals?

Operational Definitions

Supervision – Winston and Creamer (1997) defined supervision in higher education as “a management function intended to promote the achievement of institutional goals and to enhance the personal and professional capabilities and performance of staff” (p.186).

Job Satisfaction – According to Locke (1969), job satisfaction is the “pleasurable, emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job as achieving or facilitating one’s job values” (p. 317).

Burnout – As defined by Maslach (2003) is “a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who do “people-work” of some kind” (p.2).

Methods

Participants

Research participants for the study included *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals employed at institutions of higher education in the United States and internationally. Participants were recruited from the ACUHO-I (Association of College and University Housing Officers – International) database. After IRB approval, demographic data was collected followed by the instrumentation of relevant surveys.

Instrumentation

The instrumentation used for the study included: (1) *Synergistic Supervision Scale* (SSS) (Saunders, Cooper, Winston and Chernow, 2000), (2) *Job Satisfaction Survey* (JSS) (Spector, 1985), and (3) *Maslach Burnout Inventory* (MBI) (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach et al., 2011). A description of each instrument follows.

The *Synergistic Supervision Scale* (SSS) was developed by researchers Saunders, Cooper, Winston and Chernow (2000) to examine the supervisory relationship among professionals in higher education. After an extensive review of relevant literature in Student Affairs, higher education and business management, the SSS was designed to assess various aspects of supervisory relationships and activities related to the supervision process (Saunders et al., 2000). The scale measures the participant's perceptions of their supervisor on six behaviors including (1) concern about staff member's personal and professional development, (2) equitable staff treatment, (3) management that encourages productivity, (4) cooperative problem solving with staff, (5) systematic goal setting, and (6) two-way communication and feedback (Saunders et al., 2000 p. 183). The 22-item scale asks participants to rate the frequency of the behaviors based on their perceptions of their current supervisory relationship. Participants' responses were based on a five point Likert-type scale (1= never or almost never, 2= seldom, 3= sometimes, 4= often, 5=always or almost always) (Saunders et al., 2000; Tull, 2006).

The researchers tested the internal consistency reliability of the SSS by calculating the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the correlations of the items and the total scale. The scale had an alpha coefficient of .94, with the item correlations ranging from .44 to .75. (Saunders et al., 2000; Tull, 2006). Validity of the SSS was estimated by correlating the scores on the SSS with scores on the Index of Occupational Reaction (IOR) and the Organizational Commitment

Questionnaire (OCQ) (Smith, 1976; Porter & Smith, 1970). The Pearson product-moment correlation between the IOR and SSS was .91 ($n = 275$, $p < .001$) and between the OCQ and SSS was .64 ($n = 275$, $p < .001$)” (Saunders et al., 2000, p.185). Used in another study, the findings of the SSS show that perceived levels of synergistic supervision behavior were positively related to job satisfaction and negatively related to job turnover (Tull, 2006).

The *Job Satisfaction Survey* (JSS) is a measure of job satisfaction among human service professionals developed by Industrial/Organizational Psychologist Paul E. Spector in 1985 (Spector, 1985). Spector developed the instrument to fill the need for a new measure of job satisfaction in the field of human services. The JSS was designed with three goals in mind: (1) to develop content items applicable specifically to human service professionals; (2) to address specific aspects of job satisfaction with subscales that were clear and distinct in content; and (3) to develop a measure of job satisfaction that was under 40 items (Spector, 1985). As a result, the JSS was developed based on a sample of 3,148 professionals in both public and non-profit human service organizations who participated in this large-scale study of job satisfaction (Spector, 1985; Spector, 1997).

The survey is a self-report questionnaire that examines nine dimensions of overall job satisfaction. Participants are asked to respond to 36 items or 4 items for each of the nine subscales related to their feelings about the job and specific aspects of the job. The nine subscales are (a) Pay, (b) Promotion, (c) Supervision, (d) Fringe Benefits, (f) Contingent Rewards, (g) Operating Procedures, (h) Co-workers, (i) Nature of Work, and (j) Communication. The response options range from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree” (Spector, 1985; Spector, 1997).

Internal consistency reliability was computed for each subscale and the total scale on a sample of 2,870 participants. Each alpha coefficient was above .50 and all but two of the subscales were over .70. The total scale was .91. A test-retest reliability estimate was taken from a small sample of individuals 18 months apart. Correlation coefficients ranged from .37 to .74 for the nine subscales and was .71 for the entire scale (Spector, 1985).

One of the most commonly used instruments for the measurement of burnout is the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* (MBI) (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach et al., 2011). Currently, there are two adaptations of the MBI, but the original measure, the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* Human Services Survey (MBI-HSS) was designed to assess burnout in professionals in the human services field. The MBI-HSS is based on Maslach's three dimensional conceptualization of burnout and includes subscales for *Emotional Exhaustion*, *Depersonalization* and *Reduced Personal Accomplishment* (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach et al., 2011). The MBI-HSS is made up of 22 items that examine the work performance of human service professionals as it relates to burnout. Each item is an affirmation on the respondent's feelings and attitude toward their work in human services. The survey presents a Likert-type response scale with options ranging from never (0) to every day (6). The MBI-HSS is a self-administered questionnaire and takes no more than 15 minutes to complete (Maslach et al., 2011).

Reliability of the MBI-HSS was assessed by tests of internal consistency using Chronbach's alpha coefficient. In a sample of 1,316 who completed the test, the reliability coefficient scales were as follows: .90 for *Emotional Exhaustion*, .79 for *Depersonalization*, and .71 for *Reduced Personal Accomplishment*. The test-retest reliability of the MBI-HSS has been conducted on at least five samples. The test-retest reliability coefficients for the subscales were: .82 for *Emotional Exhaustion*, .60 for *Depersonalization*, and .80 for *Reduced Personal*

Accomplishment (Maslach et al., 2011). Validity for the MBI-HSS was supported by data that confirms the relationships between burnout dimensions and personal outcomes such as intent to leave a position (Schaufeli, Bakker, Hoogduin, Schaap, & Klader, 2001).

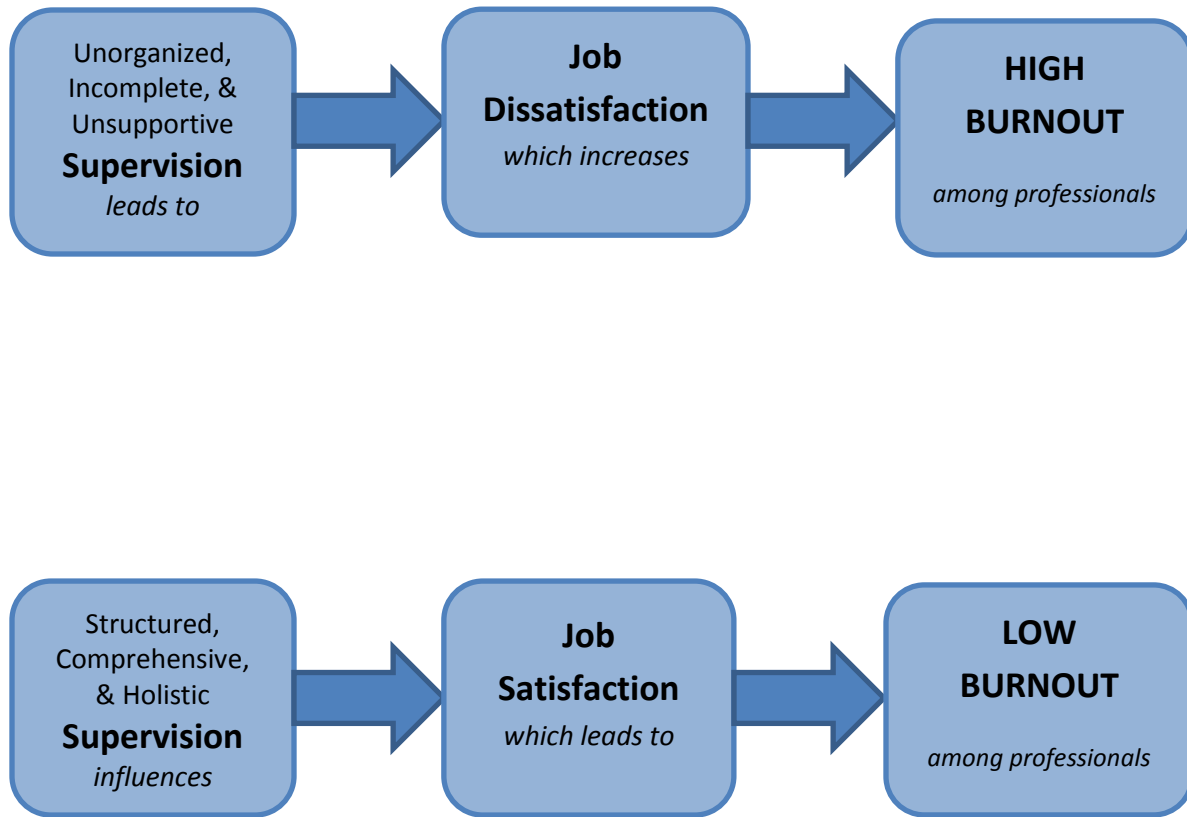


Figure 1.1 Conceptual Model of Theoretical Framework

Procedures

The researcher requested a participant list including *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals who are members of ACUHO-I (Association of College and University Housing Officers – International). All participants were informed about the current research study and data collection procedures. The researcher obtained informed consent from each participant electronically. All instruments were obtained by the researcher and combined into one electronic survey. The final survey instrument for the proposed study also included a

demographic questionnaire. Once the electronic survey closed, the researcher organized the data into a spreadsheet and used the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) to analyze the data.

Analysis

The statistical analysis techniques that were used to answer the research questions of the study were multivariate analysis and hierarchical multiple regression analysis (HMRA). Both are common statistical analysis techniques that are often used to study the relationship or correlation between a single dependent variable and one or more independent variables (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 2003; Babbie, 2010). By using these analyses, the researcher was able to predict the dependent variable based on the value of a particular independent variable; while controlling for the effects of other independent variables in the regression model (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Both HMRA and multivariate analysis allowed the researcher to test each research question to determine whether or not the relationship between the dependent and independent variables was statistically significant. This determination assisted the researcher in accepting or rejecting the null hypothesis of each research question (Hinkle et al., 2003; Montgomery, Peck, & Vining, 2012).

Potential Limitations

One of the potential limitations of the research study was the use of a self-report questionnaire. Data collected using this method runs the risk of being either inaccurate or incomplete (Creswell, 2014). Inaccuracy may occur from bias or perception errors. This may be an issue if participants feel they cannot be truthful with their responses for fear that it may be a poor reflection on their current supervisor. Surveys may be incomplete if participants do not answer all the questions due to not understanding the questions or not having adequate time to complete the full questionnaire (Creswell, 2014). To thwart this potential limitation, the

researcher provided three \$25.00 Visa gift cards and randomly selected three names from the participants who fully completed the survey to each receive a gift card.

Potential limitations may also include soliciting participation via electronic communication. Using this method may cause problems retrieving survey responses from participants. Nulty (2008) found that completion rates for surveys administered online through email notification were on average 23% lower than pen and paper surveys. However, since the use of computers with Internet connection and e-mail, communication has increased significantly over the last five years. This may suggest that web-based data collection methods are becoming the norm rather than the exception (Davidson, 2009; Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2014).

The last potential limitation was the population used for the proposed study. The study sample was comprised of self-identified *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals who are members of ACUHO-I. Although membership in this professional association is very large, it does not encompass all *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals. Particularly, representation of professionals who work for privatized college housing corporations may be limited within the association. This limitation may impact the generalizability of research results (Creswell, 2014).

Chapter Summary

Chapter One served as an introduction to the key concepts being examined in the current research study (supervision, job satisfaction, and burnout). The chapter outlined the theoretical background of each concept along with a statement of the research problem. The proposed research questions and some important operational definitions are also discussed in this chapter. The chapter concludes with a brief description of the methods and the potential limitations of the proposed study. Next, chapter two will highlight relevant research studies and important

literature on the topics of supervision, job satisfaction, and burnout in the helping professions with particular emphasis on the field of Student Affairs and Housing and Residence Life professionals.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

In order to best address some of the concerns regarding the demanding job responsibilities and job satisfaction of *live-in/live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals, staff members might benefit from participating in an effective supervisory relationship. Effective supervision may include an administrator who gives special attention to a supervisee's personal well-being and encourages professional growth and development (Belch & Mueller, 2003; Belch et al., 2009). Stock-Ward and Javorek (2003) noted that supervisors who work closely with professional staff members and give attention to both personal well-being and professional growth and development are often successful in addressing important issues that may affect job satisfaction and staff attrition. Conversely, the inability of administrators to provide this type of effective supervision to staff members can negatively affect the professional competence and development of professionals within the department which may directly contribute to job dissatisfaction and attrition for Housing and Residence Life professionals (Stock-Ward & Javorek, 2003). Additionally, because it is such an important element of administration, it is also necessary for supervisors to understand the purpose and functions of effective supervision (Arminio & Creamer, 2001).

Functions of Supervision

According to Kadushin (2014), there are three specific functions of supervision: (1) administrative, (2) educational, and (3) supportive. The three functions of supervision are linked together and flow into one another. If one element is not being fulfilled, then the process of supervision is less effective (Kadushin, 2014). In the *administrative* function, the primary goal is to make sure the supervisee is effectively implementing the policies and procedures of the department. The responsibility of the supervisor within this function is to check for

understanding and compliance (Kadushin, 2014). Student Affairs administrators should regularly communicate with staff members in their areas to ensure that they are familiar with, and comprehend all policies and protocols of the department and the university (Scheuermann, 2011). Along with familiarity and understanding of important policies, supervisors must also be aware of whether or not their staff members are correctly and appropriately implementing and enforcing those policies and procedures (Scheuermann, 2011; Stock-Ward & Javorek, 2003).

Within the *educational* function of supervision, the supervisor's primary goal is to assist with improving the knowledge and professional skills of the supervisee (Kadushin, 2014). Within the field of Student Affairs, the core of the work is to effectively serve the student population. Because the dynamics of the student population are constantly changing, information and research in the field is always evolving (Stock-Ward & Javorek, 2003). Student Affairs professionals have a responsibility to keep up with current trends and best practices in the field in order to make sure they are effectively meeting the holistic needs of every student they serve (Stock-Ward & Javorek, 2003). The educational function of supervision allows the supervisor to enhance and support the scholarly and practical knowledge of their supervisees. This can be done by encouraging staff members to read research in the field, attend seminars and workshops on relevant topics, attend professional conferences, and even obtain specific degrees or certifications in their area of interest (Stock-Ward & Javorek, 2003).

The last function of supervision is *support*. Kadushin (2014) noted that the primary goal of the supportive function is to improve morale and job satisfaction. Since the nature of Student Affairs work can sometimes be overwhelming and exhaustive, a supervisor should try to help staff members deal with job-related stress in such a way that prevents burnout in the position and attrition in the field (Stock-Ward & Javorek, 2003). In order to be effective in the function of

supportive supervision, supervisors should be available and approachable so that staff members can communicate personal concerns in confidence (Stock-Ward & Javorek, 2003). This function might also be achieved by building a good working relationship with staff members, listening to their concerns about job satisfaction, and finding solutions to reduce overwhelming job-related stress, which might possibly lead to staff attrition (Stock-Ward & Javorek, 2003; Tull, 2006).

Approaches to Supervision

Along with learning the functions of supervision, effective supervisors should use an effective or best practices approach to supervision. In their 1997 work, *Improving Staffing Practices in Student Affairs*, Winston and Creamer identified four approaches to supervising Student Affairs professionals. Each approach describes the attitude and practice a supervisor takes toward the supervision process (Winston & Creamer, 1997). The four approaches are (1) Authoritarian, (2) Laissez Faire, (3) Companionable, and (4) Synergistic.

The *authoritarian* approach to supervision is based on the belief that staff members need constant attention. Supervisors who use this approach usually see their staff members as generally unreliable, immature, or inexperienced (Winston & Creamer, 1997). This type of approach sends the message that employees are incapable or unmotivated to work effectively unless someone monitors them carefully. Even though supervisors who take this approach may be well intentioned, it is seen by professional staff members as micromanagement, and is usually very ineffective as it does not allow staff members to develop self-regulatory mechanisms, self-reliance, and professional judgment. Perhaps most importantly, this approach is usually detrimental to the working relationship between the supervisor and supervisee (Winston & Creamer, 1997).

The *laissez-faire* approach of supervision includes the supervisor regularly allowing staff members the freedom to use their talents and skills to fulfill job responsibilities without constantly looking over their shoulder. Student Affairs administrators who take this approach are usually very strategic in hiring new professionals for their units (Winston & Creamer, 1997). During the recruitment and selection process for hiring new staff members, they look for applicants that have the talent and skills to get their jobs done with minimum supervision. Supervisees within this approach only get assistance from their supervisor if they run into a difficulty that they cannot adequately handle themselves and thus seek out supervision (Winston & Creamer, 1997).

Winston and Creamer (1997) identified the *companionable* approach as friendship-like relationships between the supervisor and those being supervised. Typically, supervisors who use this approach want to be well-liked by their supervisees and attempt to create harmonious relationships among staff members (Winston & Creamer, 1997). These supervisors enjoy being “buddies” with the staff they supervise, often creating conflicts of interest within the department. Supervision problems within this approach are seen as friendship problems; therefore, supervisors usually believe the solution to these problems is to strengthen interpersonal bonds and provide emotional support for the staff member (Winston & Creamer, 1997).

The final approach to supervision described by Winston and Creamer (1997) is the *synergistic* approach. This approach views supervision as a cooperative effort between the supervisor and the staff members. Synergistic supervision has a dual focus with important responsibilities for both the supervisor and the supervisee. The main objectives of the synergistic approach are to guide staff members as they work to accomplish the goals of the department; and to support staff members in accomplishing their personal and professional development goals

(Saunders et al., 2000). The synergistic approach to supervision gives appropriate attention to meeting the needs of the institution and the interests and needs of professional staff members. Shupp and Arminio (2012) noted that synergistic supervision is a holistic model for supervising Student Affairs professionals because it focuses on professional development by interlocking individual and organizational goals (Saunders et. al., 2000).

Components of the Synergistic Model

According to Winston and Creamer (1997), the synergistic model of supervision has several components, each of which receives equal attention from the supervisor and the staff member being supervised. The first two components are referred to as *dual focus* and *joint effort* (Winston & Creamer, 1997; Saunders et al., 2000). These components are very similar to each other. They involve supervisors and staff members working together to select and define the goals of their respective areas. Rather than having the supervisor dictate the goals and direction of the unit, dual focus encourages administrators and their staff to collaborate on defining the goals of the unit and devising strategies to successfully accomplish them (Winston & Creamer, 1997; Saunders et al., 2000). The joint effort component views supervision as not just a task of the supervisor, but rather a cooperative activity in which supervisor and staff member both have an important contribution to making the process of supervision effective. Developing goals and plans for supervision are determined jointly between the supervisor and the staff member (Winston & Creamer, 1997; Saunders et al., 2000).

The next component highlighted in the synergistic model of supervision is *two-way communication*. In the synergistic model, supervision is dependent on a high level of trust between supervisors and staff members (Winston & Creamer, 1997; Saunders et al., 2000). This trust can be established by building a good rapport and a good working relationship with staff

members. Once this rapport is established, open communication between supervisors and staff members will improve. As a result, staff members may feel more comfortable sharing their personal feelings about job-related concerns; and possibly feel free to give their supervisors relevant, honest, and direct feedback without the fear of retaliation by the supervisor (Winston & Creamer, 1997; Saunders et al., 2000).

Another component of the synergistic model of supervision is the focus on *professional competence*. Specifically, this component concentrates on staff members' knowledge and work-related skills. This component helps staff members understand how to effectively perform their job duties and meet the needs of the students they serve (Winston & Creamer, 1997; Saunders et al., 2000). This includes being knowledgeable about a variety of important issues within the practice of Student Affairs such as student development theory, ethical and legal issues, standards of professional practice and institutional rules and policies. This knowledge can be achieved several ways. Supervisors should encourage their staff members to stay knowledgeable by reading about the latest trends and research in the field, attending seminars, workshops, and conferences, and taking educational courses (Winston & Creamer, 1997; Saunders et al., 2000). Supervisors must also make sure they are providing training for their staff members to improve their job-related skills. For Student Affairs professionals to remain effective, these skills should be refreshed regularly. Supervisors can provide the means for staff members to develop and acquire new skills through providing staff trainings and professional development funds for staff members to improve their competency in the field (Winston & Creamer, 1997; Saunders et al., 2000).

The next component of the model focuses on *personal and career development*. The synergistic model emphasizes a holistic approach to supervision. Just as the model gives

attention to the development of a staff member's professional competence, supervisors must also support the personal development of their staff (Winston & Creamer, 1997; Saunders et al., 2000). In order to function effectively in their professional work, individuals must also focus on whatever is necessary to achieve satisfaction in their personal lives as well. Supervisors should make sure that staff members are attending to their personal development by encouraging them to take care of themselves physically and mentally, and by balancing their work responsibilities to make time for personal interests (Winston & Creamer, 1997; Saunders et al., 2000).

Career development is another area of focus within the synergistic model of supervision. Career development is an important part of staff development for Student Affairs professionals. Supervisors should be concerned with helping staff members discover their true career interests (Winston & Creamer, 1997; Saunders et al., 2000). Once staff members discover their area of interests, supervisors should encourage their staff members to pursue projects and opportunities that are meaningful, in line with their interests, and personally satisfying (Winston & Creamer, 1997; Saunders et al., 2000).

Proactivity is another effective component of the synergistic model of supervision. This component relies on identifying potential problems a staff member may experience early, rather than reacting to problems after they have built up over time (Winston & Creamer, 1997; Saunders et al., 2000). Proactive supervisors try to identify potential problems early and work with their staff members to develop strategies to address the issues and lessen or prevent their effects. In order to deal with these problems, supervisors should meet regularly with their staff members and allow them time to bring the issues to the table. When this happens, supervisors need to provide timely feedback and advice on how to adequately handle the concerns (Winston & Creamer, 1997; Saunders et al., 2000).

The final component that rounds out the synergistic model of supervision is the *systematic process*. Effective supervision should be an ongoing process that involves equal effort from both the supervisor and staff member (Winston & Creamer, 1997; Saunders et al., 2000). Supervisory sessions should be scheduled on a regular basis, rather than just as a response to a crisis or inadequate job performance. The frequency of supervision sessions may depend on the experience of the staff member, and whether or not they are currently dealing with significant issues. In both cases, supervision sessions should be planned ahead of time and should be a priority for both supervisors and the staff members they supervise (Winston & Creamer, 1997; Saunders et al., 2000).

Supervision in Other Helping Professions

Although effective supervision has been identified as an essential element of staff training and development for Student Affairs professionals, the topic continues to receive little attention in Student Affairs research and literature (Winston & Creamer, 1997; Saunders et al., 2000; Stock-Ward & Javorek, 2003). This is relatively surprising considering that few Student Affairs practitioners receive adequate preparation to become supervisors, despite supervision being a function of many entry and mid-level positions in the field (Stock-Ward & Javorek, 2003). Other fields of study such as counseling, social work, teaching, and nursing have been more active in researching the aspects of effective supervision and its impact on those helping professions. Stock-Ward and Javorek (2003) noted that these helping professions have contributed to the large body of literature on supervision since the 1960s. As a result, various models of supervision and specific supervisory techniques have been developed across each profession (Stock-Ward & Javorek, 2003).

In the counseling and social work professions, clinical supervision is a critical part of training for students and new professionals (Corey et al., 2010). The process of clinical supervision in counselor training may be defined as consistent observation and evaluation of the supervisee and the counseling services they provide to their clients. In both professions, supervision centers on the development of the supervisory relationship between the supervisor and the supervisee (Davys & Beddoe, 2010; Hughes & Pengelly, 1997). This includes establishing trust and a safe environment between the two. Supervisors are taught the skills necessary to establish a healthy, productive relationship with supervisees; this relationship encourages self-disclosure, identifying transference and maintaining appropriate boundaries without imposing their own values on the supervisee (Corey et al., 2010).

Research on effective supervision practices in counseling and social work suggests that supervisees value supervisors who can address difficult issues in an open and honest way with supervisees; rather than blaming or criticizing (Davys & Beddoe, 2010; Hughes & Pengelly, 1997). Hughes and Pengelly (1997) noted that in human service fields such as counseling and social work, supervisees who feel secure with their supervisor and respect their integrity are most likely to be honest about their learning needs and are able to learn from both successes and mistakes during the supervisory process. Within both professions, effective supervision provides both emotional and practical support to supervisees, while at the same time monitoring the standard of care they are providing to the clients being served (Hughes & Pengelly, 1997; Davys & Beddoe, 2010; Corey et al., 2010).

In both counseling and social work, supervision is usually conducted individually with each supervisee or in a group setting with multiple supervisees (Corey et al., 2010; Davys & Beddoe, 2010). Supervision sessions usually occur on a weekly basis and are scheduled based on

the availability of both the supervisor and supervisee. These sessions include structured interaction between the supervisor and supervisee which ultimately addresses the supervisee's current practice in the field (Corey et al., 2010; Davys & Beddoe, 2010). Whether using individual or group supervision, there are generally four main goals of the clinical supervision process: (1) to monitor the supervisee's clinical skills and performance when working with clients, (2) protecting the welfare of clients by ensuring professional and ethical standards are being met, (3) promoting supervisee personal growth and professional development, and (4) empowering the supervisee to carry out these goals as an independent professional (Corey et al., 2010).

Within the field of teacher education, supervision can take several different forms and is influenced by a variety of factors. The most frequently used method of teacher supervision involves pre-service teachers completing a term field placement while being monitored, coached, and mentored by a more experienced teacher (Garmston, Lipton, & Kaiser, 1998; DeAngelis, Wall, & Che, 2013). During the student teaching supervisory process, pre-service teachers get the opportunity to apply the theories and knowledge they gained through preparatory coursework as they assist their supervising teacher with classroom management and instruction as well as lesson planning (Garmston et al., 1998; Farber & Nillas, 2010; DeAngelis et al., 2013). Student teaching also gives the student teacher the opportunity to practice different teaching skills, learn to effectively address student and parent issues, and develop their own personal teaching style. Research on teacher supervision suggest that the student teaching experience is the most influential and important aspect of learning how to teach (Garmston et al., 1998; Farber & Nillas, 2010).

Similar to the process in counseling and social work, supervision in teacher education has three overall functions: (1) to improve teaching skills and instruction techniques, (2) to develop the teacher's potential for professional growth, and (3) to improve the educational institution's ability to renew and grow (Garmston et al., 1998). These functions are all important and link the process of supervision back to the overall success of the student teacher. Supervision has also been linked to teacher efficacy and attrition. Ebmeier (2003) found that there was a positive correlation between teacher efficacy and supervision. Ebmeier defined efficacy as a teacher's belief about his or her own capabilities to achieve a certain end. According to Ebmeier, student teachers reported that the best supervisory experiences they received during their student teaching experience included supervision activities which made them feel supported in their role by their supervising teacher (Ebmeier, 2003). The student teachers in the study noted that the most effective supervisors provided constructive feedback, personal encouragement, emotional support, skill reinforcement, and modeled best practices in classroom management and curriculum instruction. The researcher concluded that student teachers who received this type of supervision experienced an increase in teacher efficacy (Ebmeier, 2003).

Teacher supervision has also been linked to attrition among teachers in the field of education (DeAngelis et al., 2013). Recent studies have shown higher retention rates for teachers with more formal preparation including comprehensive supervision during the student teaching experience (Borman & Dowling, 2008; Ingersoll, Merrill, & May, 2012; DeAngelis et al., 2013). Because of the relatively high attrition rates of teachers during their first few years in the profession, teacher education practitioners have increased efforts to provide strong mentoring and supportive supervision programs for beginning teachers (DeAngelis et al., 2013). Ingersoll and Strong (2011) explained,

The goal of these support [induction] programs is to improve the performance and retention of beginning teachers, that is, to both enhance and prevent the loss of teachers' human capital, with the ultimate aim of improving the growth and learning of students. (p. 203)

The most impactful of these support programs are those that provide early and consistent career support as measured by the availability and quality of supervision and positive mentoring (DeAngelis et al., 2013). DeAngelis, Wall, and Che (2013) concluded there was a direct association between the quality and comprehensiveness of early career support (such as supervision and mentoring) and new teachers' intentions and decisions to remain at their current school and in the teaching profession (DeAngelis et al., 2013).

Within the field of nursing, supervision of nursing students and professionals is just as important as it is in other helping professions. Because of the demanding and critical nature of the work, clinical nursing experience is an integral part of nursing education; and as a result can be one of the most stressful components of professional nursing practice (Sharif & Masoumi, 2005; Brunero & Stein-Parbury, 2008; Koivu, Saarinen, & Hyrkas, 2012). With this in mind, clinical supervision in nursing is a process of professional support and learning that assists nurses in developing and improving their professional practice. This is achieved through observation, practice and discussion of nursing skills with more experienced and knowledgeable colleagues and peers (Brunero & Stein-Parbury, 2008). Bond and Holland (2010) summarized clinical supervision in nursing as 'regular time for facilitated, in-depth, reflection on clinical practice aimed to enable the supervisee to achieve, sustain and creatively develop a high quality of practice through the means of focused support and development' (Bond & Holland, 2010).

Koivu, Saarinen, and Hyrkas (2012) noted that clinical supervision in nursing

traditionally has three important goals: (1) to enable nursing practitioners to develop knowledge and competence, (2) to encourage nurses to assume responsibility for their own actions and (3) to enhance patient care and safety in complex medical situations. Overall, clinical supervision gives nurses the opportunity to discuss issues such as patient care, new skill development, and basic skill refreshers in a safe and supportive environment led by a clinical nursing instructor, nurse mentor, or head nurse (Koivu et al., 2012). This type of professional supervision has been shown to play an important role in increasing self-confidence among nurses, as well as promoting role socialization and encouraging independence which might lead to clinical competency for nurses (Sharif & Masoumi, 2005).

Clinical supervision in nursing can be conducted using different methods such as one-on-one sessions or regular group sessions between the supervising nurse and the student or professional nurse being supervised. With either method, the most common model for the process of clinical supervision in nursing is the *Interactive Model of Clinical Supervision* (Bond & Holland, 2010). Developed by Brigid Proctor in 1986, this model focuses on three specific functions of clinical supervision. The *formative* function provides a framework and process for reflective learning. During this function, the supervisor provides feedback and direction to the supervisee regarding theoretical knowledge and practical skill development. The formative function of clinical supervision also enables the supervisee to recognize strengths and weaknesses in their skills. This function also encourages them to further develop their knowledge in order to become an increasingly more competent nurse (Proctor, 1986; Bond & Holland, 2010; Taylor, 2014). The next function of clinical supervision described by Proctor (1986) is the *normative* function. The normative function of supervision focuses on important managerial and organizational aspects of supervision. The supervisor accepts responsibility for confirming the

supervisee is developing and maintaining standards of safe nursing practice and ensuring that both local and national clinical standards are followed. This includes the supervisor making sure the supervisee's work is professional, ethical and within the confines of the law (Proctor, 1986; Bond & Holland, 2010; Taylor, 2014). The last function of clinical supervision explained by Proctor (1986) is the *restorative* function. This function centers on creating a supportive relationship between the supervisor and the supervisee which creates a safe space to address the emotions associated with clinical nursing practice. Within the restorative function, the supervisor focuses on providing an emotional outlet for the supervisee through listening, supporting, and sometimes confronting them when clinical difficulties arise. If the restorative function is effective, the supervisee will feel comfortable approaching the supervisor to address their personal feelings, thoughts, and questions related to their clinical experience (Proctor, 1986; Bond & Holland, 2010; Taylor, 2014). The restorative function has been shown to reduce supervisee anxiety arising from stressful situations and relationships; as well as strengthen team member's accountability in the work environment (Taylor, 2014).

Job Satisfaction

Just as supervision is a critical element for employee success in any organization, understanding employee job satisfaction is also essential. Studies of job satisfaction date back to the early 1900s (Hoy & Miskel, 2013). Most of these researchers focused on employee work behaviors based on management expectations. With the onset of The Great Depression, researchers began to focus specifically on work from the employee perspective. This included exploring the consequences of unemployment for employees and the first studies on employee job satisfaction (Hoy & Miskel, 2013). According to Locke (1969) job satisfaction is defined as the "pleasurable, emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or

facilitating one's job values" (p.317). Since the early beginnings of research on job satisfaction, there has been much difference of opinion on whether job satisfaction should be considered from an overall perspective, or based upon its individual components (Davidson, 2009). In his research on the topic, Locke (1969, 1976) concluded that particular facets of a job contribute to the overall perception of the job as fulfilling or dissatisfying. Locke (1969, 1976) coined the concept as "facet satisfaction" which described how satisfied employees were with various facets of their work such as pay, working conditions, supervision, and the work itself. Although the concept was not coined until much later by Locke, the very idea of facet satisfaction was the key element in Herzberg's Dual-Factor Theory of job satisfaction developed years earlier in 1959.

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Job Satisfaction

Fredrick Herzberg's Dual-Factor Theory of job satisfaction dates back to 1959 and began with the publication of his book *The Motivation to Work* (1959). The book was based on a research study on job attitudes conducted by Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959). The study, which consisted of 200 interviews with engineers and accountants, helped Herzberg to examine different dimensions of work that made employees feel exceptionally good or exceptionally bad about their jobs (Herzberg et al., 1959; Smerek & Peterson, 2007; Miner, 2005). After analyzing the responses, Herzberg (1959) and his colleagues concluded that job satisfaction consisted of two separate, independent dimensions – satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Herzberg (1959) noted that since job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are separate and independent, they are not on opposite ends of the same continuum (Herzberg, 1966). As a result of the research, Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) concluded that the opposite of satisfaction on the job is not dissatisfaction, but rather "no satisfaction." Conversely, the opposite

of dissatisfaction is “no dissatisfaction” rather than satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959; Herzberg, 1966; Miner, 2005).

Herzberg (1959) and his colleagues examined specific dimensions of work which led to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction and classified them as motivators and hygiene factors (Herzberg et al., 1959; Smerek & Peterson, 2007; Miner, 2005). *Motivators* were the satisfying events research subjects described when asked to recall a time they felt “exceptionally good” about their jobs. They included intrinsic factors such as achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement, and growth. Herzberg (1959) posited that these factors were intrinsic because they are related to the individual’s internal state of mind regarding that particular dimension of their work (Herzberg et al., 1959; Smerek & Peterson, 2007). Herzberg (1966) went further and classified extrinsic factors that led to job dissatisfaction as hygiene factors. *Hygiene factors* were identified as salary, work conditions, company policy and administration, supervision, relationship with supervisor, relationships with colleagues, job status, job security, and balance of work and personal life. These factors, which often came up when research subjects were asked to recall a time they felt “exceptionally bad” about their jobs, were classified as extrinsic factors because they were linked more to the context of the work rather than the content (Herzberg, 1966; Smerek & Peterson, 2007; Miner, 2005). In looking at both motivators (intrinsic factors) and hygiene factors (extrinsic factors) Herzberg (1959, 1966) concluded that one could not improve job satisfaction by simply improving any of the ten hygiene factors. Instead, job satisfaction can only be improved by increasing the six motivators (Smerek & Peterson, 2007; Miner, 2005). Furthermore, the absence of the motivators would not lead to job dissatisfaction, but rather just “no satisfaction.” Essentially, the six motivators and ten

hygiene factors were working on two separate and distinct continua which both affect employee's job attitudes (Smerek & Peterson, 2007; Miner, 2005).

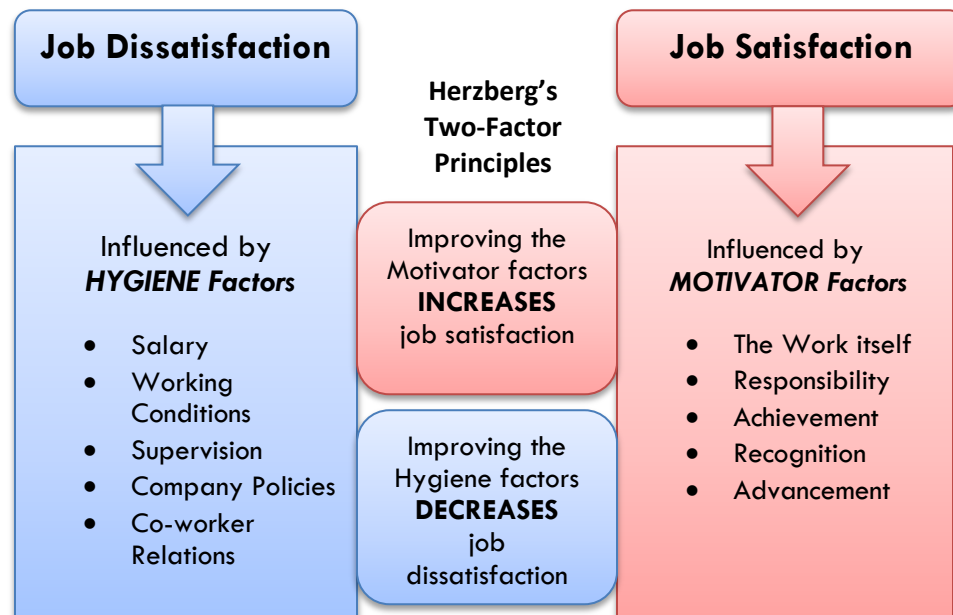


Figure 2.1 Conceptual Model of Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

Critiques of Herzberg's Dual Factor Theory

In the 55 years since it was originally published, Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory continues to be broadly influential and is often cited in education and business/industry literature (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005). In a 1968 article for the *Harvard Business Review*, Herzberg noted that there had been 16 other studies from various parts of the world replicating his research. He also indicated that these researchers had used different population samples and their results were still supportive of his original findings (Herzberg, 1987). Although well respected and widely applied in research on employee satisfaction and motivation, Herzberg's theory has also been extensively criticized. Critiques of the theory date back to the early 1960's and

highlight issues such as the core assumptions of the theory, research methods employed during early studies, and the findings of his research (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005).

For example, Locke (1976) conducted research in contrast to Herzberg's core assumption that a parallel relationship exists between hygiene factors and intrinsic motivators and between physical and psychological needs. Locke (1976) noted that this assumption was imprecise because the relationships overlap in several areas (Locke, 1976; Tietjan & Myers, 1998; Halachimi & Van der Krogt, 2010). Lindsay, Marks, and Gorlow (1967) also questioned a core assumption in Herzberg's theory in their research on employee job satisfaction. The researchers found that the same factors that impact job satisfaction could also influence dissatisfaction and therefore Herzberg's assumption of two distinct continuums for job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction should be re-evaluated (Lindsay et al., 1967).

Ewen (1964) also questioned Herzberg's core assumption and stated that intrinsic and extrinsic factors were not independent. In his research, Ewen (1964) also called Herzberg's research methods into question. Specifically, he criticized Herzberg for the absence of a reliable measure of overall job satisfaction and for investigating a limited scope of occupations. Solimon (1970) concurred with Ewen (1964) concerning problems with Herzberg's methods. Solimon (1970) posited that Herzberg's theory was methodologically bound; meaning that the use of the critical incident question Herzberg asked participants heavily influenced the results. Wall and Stephenson (2007) examined Herzberg's data and concluded that the results of Herzberg's study were significantly impacted by the tendency for people to give socially desirable answers in their responses to the question. This caused factors that impact dissatisfaction to be attributed to external factors instead of internal factors (Wall & Stephenson, 2007).

Along with questioning the core assumptions and research methods behind Herzberg's theory, several researchers also challenged his findings. Pennings (1970) challenged the two-factor theory in his research exploring value systems of white-collar workers. Pennings (1970) argued that if Herzberg's theory was valid, then all employees would have the same value systems within which they evaluate their job and work environment. Instead, the researcher found considerable deviations in the value systems of different employees (Pennings, 1970). Schroder (2008) also conducted research that contradicted Herzberg's original findings. Schroder (2008) used the two-factor theory as the framework for a study of 835 university employees which examined the impact of demographic factors on their job satisfaction. The researcher found that overall job satisfaction in the participants was related to age and educational level; and levels of intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction were not the same for different occupational groups within the participant sample (Schroder, 2008).

Despite much criticism, Herzberg's Two-Factor theory continues to be accepted and widely applied by administrators and policy makers in education and business/industry (Tietjan & Myers, 1998; Halachimi & Van der Krogt, 2010; Hoy & Miskel, 2013). Herzberg's research highlights the important connection between intrinsic and extrinsic factors and how they influence job satisfaction; and ultimately impact employee productivity and turnover (Halachimi & Van der Krogt, 2010; Hoy & Miskel, 2013). Although the method and findings of his research have been widely critiqued since it was first published in 1959, the theory still resonates with both scholars, practitioners, and organizations who seek to understand employee job satisfaction and motivation today (Halachimi & Van der Krogt, 2010; Hoy & Miskel, 2013).

Job Satisfaction in Other Helping Professions

Job satisfaction is an important element of employee motivation and work productivity (Ng, Sorenson, & Yim, 2009; Spector, 1985). The topic of job satisfaction and how it is connected to job performance has been explored by researches and organizations in numerous occupations and various professions. The majority of this research has revealed a strong relationship between job satisfaction and job performance (Ng et al., 2009). This relationship is particularly important to understand in high stress helping professions such as counseling, social work, teaching, and nursing (Jessen, 2010).

In both counseling and social work, job satisfaction is a key factor in the work lives of employees and the clients who receive their services (Jessen, 2010; Spector, 1997; Smith & Shields, 2013). Based on research findings in the field, human service professionals (such as counselors and social workers) who are satisfied with their jobs are more committed to the organizations they work for and provide better services to their clients, than those who are dissatisfied (Jessen, 2010; Spector, 1997; Hombrados-Mendieta & Cosana-Rivas, 2011). Counselors and social workers are frequently confronted with intense emotional issues and stressful client situations that may directly impact their job satisfaction (Smith & Shields, 2013; Pryne, 2011). Professionals in these fields also have to deal with low salaries in their high demand jobs which could contribute to how satisfied they are in their positions. Researchers found that low job satisfaction among helping professionals such as counselors and social workers could result in low performance, high turnover, low morale, decreased commitment, and a decline in the quality of care provided to clients they serve (Jessen, 2010; Smith & Shields, 2013; Nelson, Johnson, & Bebbington, 2009; Lanham, Rye, Rimskey, & Weill, 2012). Despite these circumstances, Smith and Shields (2013) found that social service workers were much

more likely to find intrinsic value in their work. They also noted that professionals in human service fields, such as counseling and social, might find satisfaction in their work because of opportunities to help others rather than being satisfied by a paycheck or benefits (Smith & Shields, 2013).

As in other helping professions, elementary and secondary school teachers are a primary focus of numerous studies regarding job satisfaction. Several studies in recent years have demonstrated high levels of satisfaction for some school teachers (Klassen & Chiu, 2010; Chaplain, 2008; Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008). Many of the teachers in these studies reported that job satisfaction is gained from the nature of their work including working with children, seeing students make progress, working with supportive colleagues, and overall school climate. For some teachers, these elements contribute to their overall job satisfaction – for others, elements of their work might lead to dissatisfaction with the profession (Klassen & Chiu, 2010). In 2008, Liu and Ramsey found that poor working conditions had the strongest influence on teachers' job satisfaction (Liu & Ramsey, 2008). Factors such as stress, demands from administrators, colleagues, and parents, student misbehavior and a lack of recognition for accomplishments all contribute to teachers' job satisfaction. A recent survey of U.S. teachers by MetLife demonstrated a 15 point decline in teacher satisfaction from 2010 to 2012. The survey findings indicated that education budget cuts and the demonization of teachers had taken a toll on teacher job satisfaction across the country (Bass, 2012). This decline in teacher satisfaction comes with a large number of teachers who have indicated that they are likely to leave teaching for another occupation (Bass, 2012).

Studies concerning job satisfaction in the nursing profession have yielded similar results to job satisfaction in other helping professions. Generally, job satisfaction among nurses was

reported to be moderate to high (Ulrich, Lavandero, Woods, & Early, 2014; AMN Healthcare, Inc, 2013; Curtis & Glacken, 2014). In a 2013 study by AMN Healthcare, Inc., researchers surveyed over 3,400 registered nurses across the country. The findings revealed high levels of satisfaction spanning various aspects of nursing positions, and lower levels of satisfaction concerning other elements of the job. Ninety percent of nurses surveyed stated they were satisfied with their career choice. That number was almost identical for all age groups and remained stable across education levels and specialties (AMN Healthcare, Inc, 2013). Despite high levels of satisfaction with their career choice, research in the field indicates that nurses are less satisfied with certain aspects of their positions. Particularly, nurses indicated dissatisfaction with the number of hours worked and the stressful demands of patient care (Ulrich et al., 2014; AMN Healthcare, Inc, 2013; Curtis & Glacken, 2014). These factors seem to contribute to a significant number of nurses who indicated they worry that their jobs will negatively impact their health and well-being (Ulrich et al., 2014; AMN Healthcare, Inc, 2013; Curtis & Glacken, 2014).

Job Satisfaction in Student Affairs

Within the last ten years, there have been a number of studies focused on Student Affairs staff and job satisfaction (Davidson, 2009). These studies used national samples of participants including entry-level, mid-level, and senior-level Student Affairs professionals to gather relevant information about job satisfaction and its importance in the field. Overall, the studies concluded that a variety of factors, such as interpersonal relationships and teamwork, contribute to the job satisfaction of Student Affairs professionals (Davidson, 2009). In the studies examined, researchers also concluded that job satisfaction may have a direct impact on an individual's intent to leave their position in the field. Job retention and attrition is critical as the cost of losing employees and productivity is a major concern in Student Affairs (Davidson, 2009).

Loyd (2005) investigated job satisfaction and teamwork among Student Affairs administrators. The researcher used an instrument that measured job satisfaction across three subscales: (1) intrinsic satisfaction, (2) extrinsic satisfaction, and (3) interpersonal factors. The results revealed a significant correlation between the three satisfaction factors and specific aspects of teamwork at both the departmental and divisional levels (Loyd, 2005). Loyd (2005) looked at job satisfaction and teamwork with regard to characteristics such as gender, race, institution type, and salary level. She discovered significant differences in relation to job satisfaction and work experience in Student Affairs. Particularly, she found that respondents with nine or more years of experience in their current positions were significantly more satisfied with their jobs than those with fewer years of experience in their current positions (Loyd, 2005).

Grant (2006) also explored job satisfaction in Student Affairs professionals. He applied Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Motivation to a national sample of 477 mid-level administrators. Grant's research yielded interesting demographic data. For example, women reported being more satisfied with their jobs than men. Also, White respondents were more satisfied than African- American or Latino professionals in the field (Grant, 2006). Grant's (2006) research findings were similar to Loyd's (2005) findings in that individuals with eleven or more years in their current positions reported being more satisfied with their jobs than those with fewer years in their current positions. Grant (2006) found that Herzberg's *motivators* – opportunities for advancement and the work itself – were the strongest predictors of job satisfaction. In contrast, the *hygiene* factors – job security and relationships with colleagues – were the strongest predictors of job dissatisfaction (Grant, 2006).

Although the aforementioned studies explored job satisfaction in Student Affairs professionals across a variety of positions and administrative levels; Davidson (2012) focused

specifically on job satisfaction, recruitment, and retention of entry-level Residence Life and Housing (RLH) professionals. She examined a national sample of RLH professionals with regard to their overall job satisfaction across five facets (Davidson, 2012). The researcher also investigated differences among demographic characteristics related to predictors of job satisfaction. Among the 118 respondents, the researcher discovered the highest average level of satisfaction with the predictor ‘the work itself’ (Davidson, 2012). The lowest levels of satisfaction were reported for ‘satisfaction with opportunities for promotion’. The researcher also found that on average, respondents working at four-year public institutions were significantly more satisfied with their salaries than those respondents working at four-year private institutions, which contributed to their overall job satisfaction (Davidson, 2012).

Burnout

The concept of burnout emerged as a social problem during the 1970s (Freudenberger, 1974). Since that time, researchers and practitioners have conducted countless studies in order to explore burnout and its impact on individuals in both their professional and personal lives (Schaufeli, Leiter, & Maslach, 2009). Initially, burnout was explored primarily in individuals working in human service fields such as health care, social work, and psychotherapy (Freudenberger, 1974; Freudenberger & Richelson, 1980). The focus on these fields stemmed from professionals being frustrated and disillusioned in their work which focused on trying to change systemic factors that contributed to poverty among poor families in the United States in the 1960s (Schaufeli et al., 2009). As these professionals grew increasingly frustrated with their work, and the little impact it had on the overall problem of poverty in the country, clinical psychologist Herbert Freudenberger took notice and began researching the concept of burnout in the early 1970s (Freudenberger, 1974). He defined *burnout* as a state of fatigue or frustration that

resulted from professional relationships that failed to produce the expected rewards (Freudenberger, 1974; Freudenberger & Richelson, 1980).

As research on the topic of burnout continued through the later part of the decade, social psychologist Christina Maslach and her colleagues took their exploration of burnout even further and began to explore how human service professionals were coping emotionally with their work in the field (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach, 2003). Through qualitative interviews and case studies, Maslach and her team began to see that burnout was more than simply being frustrated with work. They discovered the concept was starting to become an occupational hazard because of the way feelings of frustration and uselessness at work impacted the professionals' personal identities and their feelings toward their clients (Maslach, 2003; Schaufeli et al., 2009). As a result, in her 1981 seminal work *The Measurement of Experienced Burnout*, Maslach redefined burnout as “a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who do “people-work” of some kind” (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach, 2003, p.2). Each of these dimensions of burnout was described in detail as Maslach and her colleagues addressed the important phenomenon in her research (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach, 2003).

Maslach's Dimensions of Burnout

The first dimension of burnout as described by Maslach and her colleagues is *Emotional Exhaustion*. This dimension describes an employee's feelings of being mentally drained and emotionally overwhelmed as a result of their daily work responsibilities (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998). According to Maslach and Goldberg (1998), emotionally depleted individuals experience a loss of energy and find it increasingly difficult to continue helping the people they work with in their current positions on a daily basis. Emotional exhaustion is typically caused by an

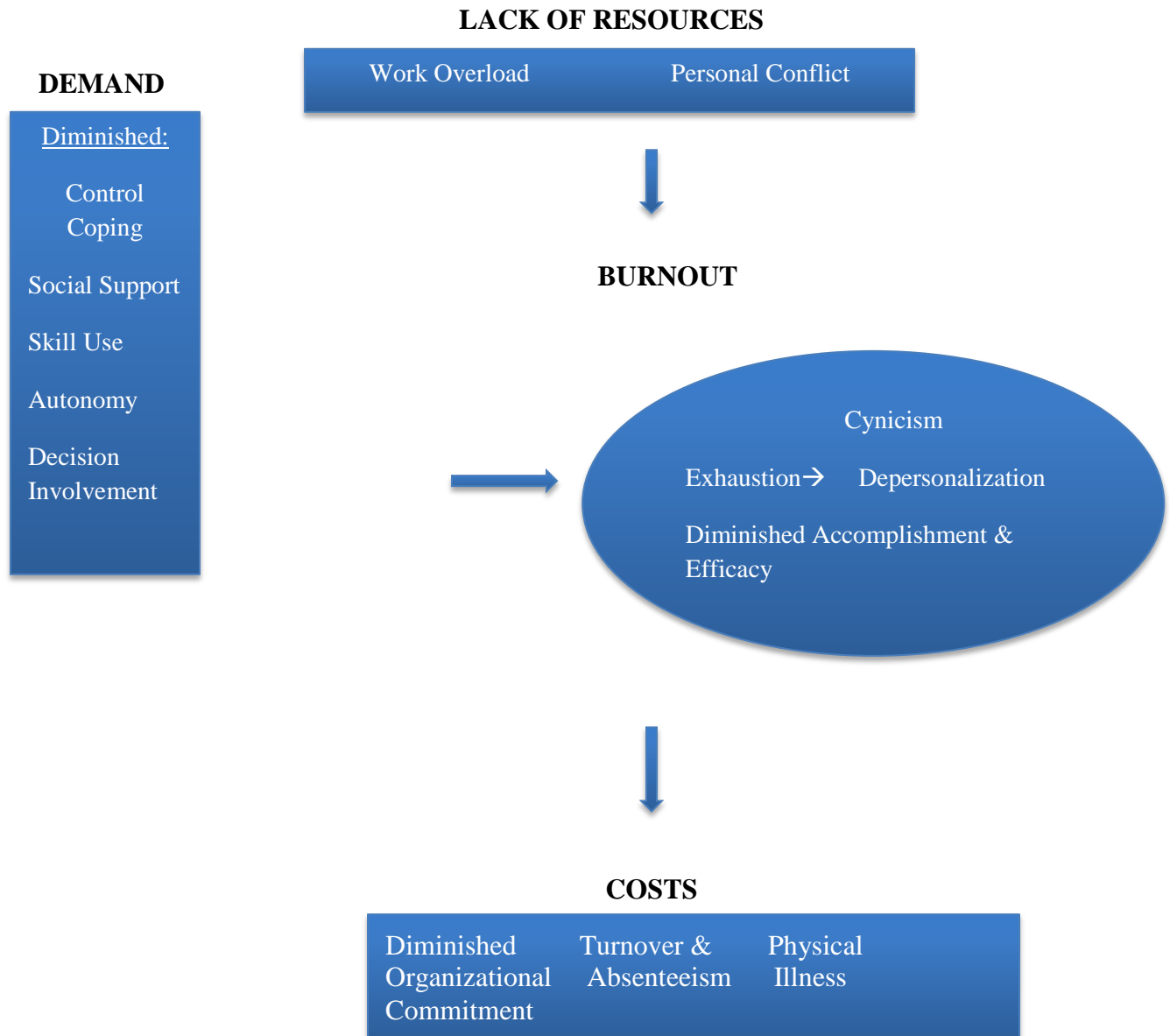
overextended workload and sometimes personal conflicts at work. A lack of emotional support both professionally and personally also contributes to the level of emotional exhaustion. As a result, this dimension of burnout causes a significant amount of stress for professionals on a regular basis and impacts their work performance (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998; Schaufeli et al., 2009).

The next dimension of burnout defined by Maslach (2003) is *Depersonalization*. This dimension focuses on the interpersonal feelings of an individual experiencing burnout in the work setting. Depersonalization refers to negative and detached responses and cynicism toward others at work. These types of responses are usually defense mechanisms individuals use to protect their emotions and are most often directed toward co-workers and clients the professional works with on a daily basis. Depersonalization can also affect an individual's significant others and damage their personal relationships outside of the workplace. Maslach and Goldberg (1998) noted that Depersonalization is usually a result of emotional exhaustion and eventually evolves into dehumanization of others in the professional work environment

The final dimension of burnout is *Reduced Personal Accomplishment*. This dimension specifically refers to a decline in an individual's feelings of competence and productivity at work (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998; Schaufeli et al., 2009). Reduced personal accomplishment is characterized by feelings of inadequacy at work and an inability to feel satisfied with the quality of work performance. These feelings often produce a noticeable decrease in self efficacy for professionals dealing with burnout in the workplace (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998). Individuals experiencing reduced personal accomplishment frequently struggle to cope with these overwhelming feelings and as a result this dimension of burnout has been linked to depression

and a lack of personal social support (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998; Schaufeli et al., 2009). See

Figure 2.2 for Maslach and Goldberg's (1998) Conceptual Model of Burnout.



(adapted from Maslach & Goldberg, 1998, p. 65)

Figure 2.2 Conceptual Model of Burnout

Burnout in the Helping Professions

Job burnout is a problem in many professions, but it is significantly more prevalent in the helping professions (Corey, et.al, 2010). Counselors, social workers, teachers, nurses and many other helping occupations have a responsibility for the wellbeing of others as a part of their daily job duties. This heavy responsibility, combined with a variety of other unfavorable working conditions, often leads to chronic personal distress, compassion fatigue, and emotional exhaustion among helping professionals (Thomas, 2013). Researchers have conducted several studies in recent years which show that these issues may be a direct cause of burnout (Thompson, Amatea, & Thompson, 2014; Lent & Schwartz, 2012; Gunduz, 2012; Hombrados-Mendieta & Cosana-Rivas, 2011). Additionally, as a result of professional burnout, more and more human service organizations are experiencing high turnover rates among employees. This problem has become a major cause of concern for these organizations who now seek to find effective strategies to address the issue of burnout and its impact (Thompson et al., 2014).

For both counselors and social workers, qualities such as empathy, compassion, and genuine caring are necessary for effectively working with their clients on a daily basis (Corey et al., 2010). Ironically, these same qualities make these helping professionals vulnerable to emotional exhaustion, personal distress and burnout (Thompson et al., 2014). Research on the topic of burnout in counselors and social workers suggests that factors such as clinical work setting, personal demographics, and personality type are also related to burnout. For example, Lent and Schwartz (2012) found that community mental health outpatient counselors were significantly more burned out than counselors who work in inpatient or private practice settings. The researchers also noted that community mental health outpatient counselors reported low levels of personal accomplishment and high levels of emotional exhaustion (Lent & Schwartz,

2012). This is significant because reduced personal accomplishment and emotional exhaustion are characteristics that commonly present in professionals who are experiencing burnout (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998). Gunduz (2012) explored other factors that may be related to counselor burnout including self-efficacy beliefs and social support. His findings revealed that counselors who have high self-efficacy beliefs and utilize social support have a more positive attitude toward their role as counselors and report lower levels of burnout (Gunduz, 2012).

Social workers are just as susceptible to burnout as counselors and other helping professionals (Hombrados-Mendieta & Cosana-Rivas, 2011). Because of the nature of their work, and other factors like diminished resources, increasing paperwork, inadequate supervision, and large caseloads, many social workers suffer with chronic psychological distress such as depression and depersonalization. These factors often contribute to professional burnout and ultimately result in high turnover rates in the profession (Hombrados-Mendieta & Cosana-Rivas, 2011). Additionally, problems associated with burnout have been shown to impact physical health as well. In a three-year longitudinal study of 406 social workers, researchers Kim, Ji, and Kao (2011) discovered that social workers with higher levels of burnout experienced a faster rate of deterioration in physical health over a one year period. Overall, burnout in counselors and social workers is not just an individual problem that can cause psychological and physical health problems in helping professionals; but it can also significantly impact the quality and availability of human services offered to those in need (Kim et al., 2011).

Teaching is another helping profession in which burnout can be a detrimental problem (Brusting, Sreckovic, & Lane, 2014). Although all teachers may experience frustration with the profession at some point or another, some teachers experience this frustration on a more regular basis. Moreover, their frustration is often accompanied with negative feelings or emotions

toward their students, co-workers, and significant others. When these feelings persist for long periods of time, they eventually lead to teacher burnout (Brusting et al., 2014; Maslach, 2003).

Researchers have conducted studies that show a significant relationship between teacher burnout and a number of different variables (Brusting et al., 2014; Martin, Sass, & Schmitt, 2012; Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006). Martin et al. (2012) found that job stress and dissatisfaction were highly correlated with teacher burnout. In another study, researchers reported that teachers experienced burnout due to lack of resources and the inability to cope with the demands of the position (Hakanen et al., 2006). In a 2013 study of burnout in healthy employees, researchers examined the relationship between burnout and depression (Bianchi, Boffy, Hingray, Truchot, & Laurent, 2013). They found that depression was highly correlated with burnout in that teachers who showed signs of burnout also experienced eight out of nine symptoms of depression (Bianchi et al., 2013).

Unfortunately, teacher burnout has an impact on more than just the individual teacher experiencing the effects. Hakanen et al. (2006), report that teachers who are burned out are often exhausted and disengaged. As a result, their students are frequently disruptive and have a hard time adjusting both socially and emotionally. Further, students of teachers who are experiencing burnout reach their academic goals at a lower rate than other students. Thus, teacher burnout is a problem that can negatively impact not only teachers, but the students, their academic and social development, and the school system as a whole (Brusting et al., 2014).

Nursing is another field in which the incidence of burnout is high among professionals (Stewart, 2014). Because of the demanding nature of their work, nurses often face multiple occupational stressors that can lead to burnout overtime. These stressors leave nurses vulnerable to the danger of burnout and impact the health and wellbeing of nursing staff and the patients in

their care (Queiros, Carlotto, Kaiseler, Dias, & Pereira, 2013). Stewart (2014) notes that nurses who are experiencing burnout are more likely to: (1) exhibit poor quality of care, (2) fail to recognize patient distress, and (3) experience decreased job satisfaction.

Nursing burnout has received extensive and continuous attention over the years and numerous researchers have explored the issue through research studies (Queiros et al., 2013; Breen & Sweeney, 2013; Stewart, 2014). Queiros et al. (2013) conducted a study which examined predictors of burnout among nurses. A sample of 1,157 nurses from four different hospitals was surveyed using instruments focusing on burnout, job satisfaction, and work-home interactions. Several socio-demographic variables were also used to explore predictors of burnout among nurses. The researchers conducted a hierarchical regression analysis and found that gender, age, years of experience at work, management positions, job satisfaction, and home-work interactions all seem to be predictors of burnout among nurses (Queiros et al., 2013).

Breen and Sweeney (2013) examined burnout in nurses who work in inner city areas. They specifically looked at the experiences of psychiatric nurses who worked in three different mental health settings. The researchers noted that psychiatric nurses are even more prone to burnout because they are responsible for the care of patients with significant emotional demands and extreme mental health diagnoses (Breen & Sweeney, 2013). The researchers' findings show a significant relationship between emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment in terms of years of experience. Specifically, more experienced nurses have lower emotional exhaustion than those just entering the profession. Conversely, nurses new to the field report higher levels of personal accomplishment than more experienced nurses (Breen & Sweeney, 2013). These findings are significant because both emotional exhaustion and reduced personal

accomplishment are symptoms of professional burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach, 2003).

Stewart (2014) focused his study on ways to reduce burnout in nurses in secure settings. Nurses in secure settings such as prisons and forensic mental health units often experience higher rates of burnout than nurses that work in other settings. This higher rate of burnout is likely a result of both the perceived and actual threat of physical violence they face in their work environment on a daily basis (Stewart, 2014). Stewart (2014) aimed to identify interventions that could possibly reduce burnout and promote wellbeing among nurses in secure settings. The researcher found that effective clinical supervision, psychological intervention training, and supportive professional relationships could all help nurses to manage emotional stress and reduce the incidence of burnout (Stewart, 2014).

Student Affairs professionals are another group of helping professionals who seem to struggle with occupational burnout. Because of the nature of student services work, Student Affairs professionals often assume a variety of different job responsibilities. This sometimes creates a high personal demand on their time and energy (Guthrie, Woods, Cusker, & Gregory, 2005). Volkwein and Zhou (2003) reported that “compared with other divisions, managers in student services report the highest levels of job stress and pressure” (p.160). As a result of unconventional work schedules, job stress, and pressure to take on additional demanding responsibilities, many Student Affairs professionals develop issues with personal and professional balance. These issues often lead to occupational burnout (Guthrie et al., 2005).

Within the field of Student Affairs, Housing and Residence Life professionals may be even more susceptible to occupational burnout than others working in the field (Vaughn, 2014). Because many Housing and Residence Life professionals actually live in student residence halls

or very near the campuses where they work, they are often required to work on-call hours in addition to their regular daytime hours. On-call responsibilities require Housing and Residence Life professionals to respond to the needs of students in crisis at any time of the day or night. These responsibilities and non-standard work hours often create high stress, decrease sleep, and cause both physical and emotional exhaustion among these professionals (Vaughn, 2014). As a result, many Housing and Residence Life professionals may have less time to focus on things that promote emotional health and wellness such as preparing nutritious meals, spending time with family and friends, and other leisure activities (Kleiner & Pavalko, 2010). These issues may contribute to an increase in emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and overall occupational burnout among professionals working in Housing and Residence Life positions (Vaughn, 2014).

Chapter Summary

Chapter Two provided an overview of the relevant literature reviewed for the theoretical framework of the current study. The definition of supervision and some of the functions and approaches to supervision were discussed. Next, job satisfaction was examined with particular focus on Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of job satisfaction. Finally, the chapter concluded with the definition of burnout and the dimensions associated with the construct. In addition, the benefits and consequences of supervision, job satisfaction and burnout among helping professionals was discussed throughout the chapter. Relevant research studies were presented which demonstrated findings related to each area. Although there has been extensive research conducted with regard to supervision, job satisfaction and burnout, little research exists on how each of these variables impacts Housing and Residence Life professionals in particular. As a result, the current study addresses the literature gap and examines the relationship between

supervision, job satisfaction and burnout in *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

CHAPTER 3: METHODS

Chapter Three focuses specifically on the methodological procedures that were used in the current study. The first section outlines the research design, research questions, and study participants. The next section discusses the data collection procedures and instrumentation. The final section of this chapter outlines the data analysis plan.

Research Design

Quantitative research methods are used when a researcher wants to study a sample of a population in order to generalize the results back to the larger population (Creswell, 2014). There are four broad categories of quantitative research: 1) Descriptive research, 2) Correlational research, 3) Quasi-Experimental research, and 4) Experimental research (Hinkle et al., 2003; Babbie, 2010). In descriptive research such as correlational designs, the participants are only measured once and the researcher is able to show associations between the identified variables. With experimental research, participants are usually measured before and after a treatment, and the researcher is able to establish causality (Creswell, 2014). The research design that was used for the current study is a quantitative correlational design. Using this design, the researcher focused on examining the relationship between supervision, job satisfaction, and burnout among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

The goal of a correlational design is to determine the relationship between one thing (the independent variable), and another thing (the dependent or outcome variable) within a population (Babbie, 2010; Creswell, 2014). With a correlational design, the researcher can define the independent variable, but does not control the assignment of study participants to that variable. A correlational research design allows the researcher to measure variables and then analyze them to see whether the variables are related and to what extent. If there is a significant relationship

between two variables, a researcher can then use the correlation coefficient and the p value to determine the strength of that relationship (Hinkle et al., 2003; Creswell, 2014). Generally, quantitative methods focus on statistically analyzing objective data that was collected through polls, questionnaires, and surveys (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2014). According to Dillman et al. (2014), surveys are useful and appropriate when a researcher wants to learn about individual attitudes, opinions, beliefs, and practices. Survey instruments are an effective and efficient way to gather data such as descriptive information from participants in the population sample. Once the data is collected, the researcher uses specific statistical procedures to analyze the data and determine if it supports or refutes the research questions being explored by the researcher (Creswell, 2014; Dillman et al., 2014).

Research Questions

The current study aimed to answer the following questions posed by the researcher:

Research Question One: Is there a statistically significant relationship between the level of supervision received (independent variable) as measured by the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* and job satisfaction (dependent variable) as measured by the *Job Satisfaction Survey* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals?

Researcher's Hypothesis: There is a statistically significant relationship between the perceived level of supervision received as measured by the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* and job satisfaction as measured by the *Job Satisfaction Survey* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

Null Hypothesis: There is not a statistically significant relationship between the perceived level of supervision received as measured by the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* and job

satisfaction as measured by the *Job Satisfaction Survey* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

Research Question Two: Is there a statistically significant relationship between the level of supervision received (independent variable) as measured by the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* and emotional exhaustion (dependent variable) as measured by the Emotional Exhaustion subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals?

Researcher's Hypothesis: There is a statistically significant relationship between the level of supervision received as measured by the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* and emotional exhaustion as measured by the Emotional Exhaustion subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

Null Hypothesis: There is not a statistically significant relationship between the level of supervision received as measured by the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* and emotional exhaustion as measured by the Emotional Exhaustion subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

Research Question Three: Is there a statistically significant relationship between the level of supervision received (independent variable) as measured by the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* and depersonalization (dependent variable) as measured by the Depersonalization subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals?

Researcher's Hypothesis: There is a statistically significant relationship between the level of supervision received as measured by the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* and

depersonalization as measured by the Depersonalization subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

Null Hypothesis: There is not a statistically significant relationship between the level of supervision received as measured by the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* and depersonalization as measured by the Depersonalization subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

Research Question Four: Is there a statistically significant relationship between the level of supervision received (independent variable) as measured by the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* and personal accomplishment (dependent variable) as measured by the Personal Accomplishment subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals?

Researcher's Hypothesis: There is a statistically significant relationship between the level of supervision received as measured by the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* and personal accomplishment as measured by the Personal Accomplishment subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

Null Hypothesis: There is not a statistically significant relationship between the level of supervision received as measured by the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* and personal accomplishment as measured by the Personal Accomplishment subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

Research Question Five: Is there a statistically significant relationship between emotional exhaustion (independent variable) as measured by the Emotional Exhaustion subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* and job satisfaction (dependent variable) as measured by the *Job Satisfaction Survey* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals?

Researcher's Hypothesis: There is a statistically significant relationship between emotional exhaustion (independent variable) as measured by the Emotional Exhaustion subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* and job satisfaction (dependent variable) as measured by the *Job Satisfaction Survey* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

Null Hypothesis: There is not a statistically significant relationship between emotional exhaustion (independent variable) as measured by the Emotional Exhaustion subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* and job satisfaction (dependent variable) as measured by the *Job Satisfaction Survey* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

Research Question Six: Is there a statistically significant relationship between depersonalization (independent variable) as measured by the Depersonalization subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* and job satisfaction (dependent variable) as measured by the *Job Satisfaction Survey* and among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals?

Researcher's Hypothesis: There is a statistically significant relationship between depersonalization (independent variable) as measured by the Depersonalization subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* and job satisfaction (dependent variable) as measured by the *Job Satisfaction Survey* and among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

Null Hypothesis: There is not a statistically significant relationship between depersonalization (independent variable) as measured by the Depersonalization subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* and job satisfaction (dependent variable) as measured by the *Job Satisfaction Survey* and among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

Research Question Seven: Is there a statistically significant relationship between personal accomplishment (independent variable) as measured by the Personal Accomplishment subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* and job satisfaction (dependent variable) as

measured by the *Job Satisfaction Survey* and among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals?

Researcher's Hypothesis: There is a statistically significant relationship between personal accomplishment (independent variable) as measured by the Personal Accomplishment subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* and job satisfaction (dependent variable) as measured by the *Job Satisfaction Survey* and among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

Null Hypothesis: There is not a statistically significant relationship between personal accomplishment (independent variable) as measured by the Personal Accomplishment subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* and job satisfaction (dependent variable) as measured by the *Job Satisfaction Survey* and among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

Study Participants

The participant sample for the current research study was *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals. Housing and Residence Life professionals are college and university staff members who are responsible for the safety and wellbeing of students living on campus in a residential community or group of communities (Schroeder & Mable, 1994; McClellan & Stringer, 2009). As administrators within the department of Student Affairs, these professionals have a responsibility to assist students with both their academic and social needs while residing on campus. This is achieved by managing one or more residential facilities and coordinating the administrative, supervisory, and programmatic efforts in the residential community. Although Housing and Residence Life professionals are recognized by a variety of different titles depending on the institution (i.e. Residence Life Coordinator, Residence Hall

Director, Community Director) the major job responsibilities are the same or very similar across positions (Schroeder & Mable, 1994). Some of these responsibilities include but are not limited to (1) supervision of student residents and student staff members, (2) on-call crisis response and intervention, (3) facilitating student conduct hearings, (4) staff training and development, (5) providing academic support to residents and student staff, (6) coordinating educational and social programs for student residents and student staff, and (7) serving on departmental and university committees (McClellan & Stringer, 2009).

Within the area of Housing and Residence Life, there is a slight difference between *live-in* and *live-on* residence life professionals. A *live-in* Housing and Residence Life professional is a full-time college housing administrator that lives in one of the residential communities they oversee (Schroeder & Mable, 1994; McClellan & Stringer, 2009). These professionals actually live in the same residence halls or apartment communities along with the student residents and staff members they are assigned to supervise. A *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professional is also a full-time college housing administrator. These staff members share the same types of responsibilities as *live-in* staff however, the difference is *live-on* professionals typically reside somewhere on campus, but not in the residential communities they manage (Schroeder & Mable, 1994; McClellan & Stringer, 2009).

For the purposes of the current research study, the researcher recruited *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals from the membership database of the Association of College and University Housing Officers – International (ACUHO-I). Founded in 1951, ACUHO-I is the premier professional association for college housing administrators across the United States and internationally. The primary goal of the organization is to provide education, training, and a professional network for individuals who work in Housing and Residence Life at

institutions of higher education. The association has over 1,000 member campuses and hosts conferences, webinars, study tours, and new professional training institutes every year.

ACUHO-I has also developed a set of core competencies outlining what campus housing professionals need to know to effectively serve students and best practices and procedures for creating a positive residential community for students on campus. The researcher contacted ACUHO-I to request permission and assistance with surveying members of the organization for the study. Only members of the association who are classified as *live-in* or *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals were contacted to participate in the study. A total of 2,086 email invites were sent to eligible members to solicit participation in the study.

Data Collection Procedures

The first step in the data collection procedure was to get approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) to conduct the research study. In order to obtain approval to conduct the study, the researcher gathered (a) a brief description of the study, (b) Informed Consent, (c) certification to work with human participants, (d) Data Security Form, and (e) copies of the three instruments that were used in the research. This information was submitted to the IRB committee for review and approval to proceed with the research study was granted on March 6, 2015.

Once the researcher obtained permission to move forward with the study, the researcher contacted the principal author of the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* (Saunders et al., 2000) in order to obtain permission to use the instrument in the study. The researcher also contacted Mind Garden, Inc. to purchase licenses to use the *Maslach Burnout Inventory*, HSS Version (Maslach et al., 2011) in the current research study. Permission to utilize the *Job Satisfaction Survey* was not needed because the survey is free and available online for use with research studies. After

obtaining copies of each instrument, the researcher created an online survey which included all three instruments and a demographic questionnaire.

After creating the online survey for the research study, the researcher piloted the survey with 10 professionals in the field of Housing and Residence Life who fit the criteria. The pilot went out on May 6, 2015 and ended May 13, 2015. In addition to taking the survey, the participants e-mailed the researcher with any suggestions and changes with respect to the survey. The researcher noted that none of the actual survey questions could be changed. After a few changes to the aesthetic of the online survey, the survey was finalized. A hyperlink to the final survey instrument was emailed to ACUHO-I for final approval. On May 15, 2015, ACUHO-I emailed each study participant a description of the study, informed consent, and a link to the research study survey. Participants were sent two email reminders to complete the survey on May 20 and May 27, 2015. The online survey closed at midnight on May 29, 2015. Data collection yielded a total of 138 (N=138) usable survey responses for data analysis.

Instrumentation

Three previously established instruments were used in this study to measure (1) perceived level of synergistic supervision, (2) job satisfaction, and (3) burnout in *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life Professionals. The *Synergistic Supervision Scale* (SSS), developed by Saunders et al. (2000), will be used to assess the participant's perceived level of synergistic supervision. The *Job Satisfaction Survey* (JSS), developed in 1985 (Spector, 1985), will be used to measure respondent's job satisfaction. Burnout will be measured using a specific adaptation of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* (MBI). Together, these three instruments will be used to assess the relationship between supervision, job satisfaction, and burnout in *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

Synergistic Supervision Scale

The *Synergistic Supervision Scale* (SSS) was developed by Saunders et al. (2000) in an effort to better understand effective supervision in Student Affairs practice and the higher education setting. The scale was designed to measure the overall perceptions of Student Affairs staff regarding their current supervisor's ability to (1) focus on the core values of synergistic supervision, (2) advance the mission and goals of the institution, and (3) foster development and support the employee's professional career and personal path (Saunders et al., 2000). The 22-item instrument asks participants to rate the frequency of six specific behaviors based on their perception of their current supervisor. The supervisor behaviors include (1) concern about staff member's personal and professional development, (2) equitable staff treatment, (3) management that encourages productivity, (4) cooperative problem solving with staff, (5) systematic goal setting, and (6) two-way communication and feedback (Saunders et al., p. 183). The SSS uses a five point Likert-type scale (1= never or almost never, 2= seldom, 3= sometimes, 4= often, 5=always or almost always) for responses. The sum of the item responses reflects the perceived level of synergistic supervision received by the respondent from the supervisor (Saunders et al., 2000; Tull, 2006).

Saunders et al. (2000) tested the internal consistency reliability and validity of the SSS by using the Cronbach's alpha coefficient and the Pearson product-moment correlation statistical analyses. Reliability is the degree to which an assessment tool produces stable and consistent results. More specifically, internal consistency reliability refers to how well the items on an assessment measure the same construct or idea (Hinkle et al. 2003; Creswell, 2014). When using the Cronbach's alpha coefficient to test internal consistency reliability, a score of .70 or higher is considered acceptable; however, a score of .80 or higher is preferable. When the researchers

tested the reliability of the SSS, they found an alpha coefficient of .94 for the total scale. The range of item-total correlations was from .44 to .75 (Saunders et al., 2000, pp. 185).

Validity refers to the degree to which an instrument is actually measuring what it was designed to measure. Validity is related to reliability in that an assessment tool must be valid before reliability can be considered (Hinkle et al., 2003; Creswell, 2014). The validity of the SSS was estimated by correlating the scores on the SSS with scores on the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and the Index of Organizational Reactions (IOR) (Saunders et al., 2000; Porter & Smith, 1970; Smith, 1976). The OCQ was designed to measure an employee's commitment and involvement in the organization based on their responses to a 15-item questionnaire (Porter & Smith, 1970). The Pearson product-moment correlation between the SSS and the OCQ was .64 ($n = 275$, $p < .001$) (Saunders et al., 2000; Tull, 2006). The IOR measures particular aspects of work, including supervision and productivity, across eight subscales (Smith, 1976). The Pearson product-moment correlation between the SSS and the IOR was .91 ($n = 275$, $p < .001$) (Saunders et al., 2000; Tull, 2006).

Job Satisfaction Survey

The *Job Satisfaction Survey* (JSS), developed in 1985 by researcher Paul Spector will be used to measure respondent's satisfaction with their current positions (Spector, 1985). The survey was originally designed to assess employee attitudes regarding particular aspects of the job and their overall job satisfaction. Based on relevant literature in the field, Spector (1985) created the 36-item instrument for use with professionals in human service organizations. The JSS is a self-report questionnaire that examines nine specific dimensions of overall job satisfaction. Participants are asked to respond to 4 questions about each subscale and choose one of six possible response options from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". Items are written

in both directions, so about half must be reverse scored (Spector, 1985; Spector, 1997). See Table 3.1 for subscales of the *Job Satisfaction Survey* (JSS).

Table 3.1 Subscales of the *Job Satisfaction Survey* (JSS)

Subscale	Description
Pay	Composed of questions that target: Satisfaction with pay and remuneration
Promotion	Composed of questions that target: Promotion opportunities
Supervision	Composed of questions that target: Current immediate supervisor
Fringe Benefits	Composed of questions that target: Monetary and non-monetary fringe benefits
Contingent Rewards	Composed of questions that target: Appreciation, recognition, and rewards for good work
Operating Procedures	Composed of questions that target: Operating policies and procedures
Co-workers	Composed of questions that target: Interactions with those you work with
Nature of Work	Composed of questions that target: Particular job tasks themselves
Communication	Composed of questions that target: Communication with the organization

Internal consistency reliability was calculated for each subscale and the total scale based on a sample of 2,870 professionals in both public and non-profit human service organizations. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient score ranged from .60 to .82 on each of the nine subscales (Spector, 1985; Spector, 1997). All except two of the subscales were over .70 which is an acceptable measure. The alpha coefficient for the total scale was .91 which is a preferable score for internal consistency reliability. The validity of the JSS was confirmed by a multitrait-multimethod analysis of some subscales from the JSS with equivalent subscales from the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) (Spector, 1985; Spector, 1997). The JDI is a questionnaire designed to measure employee's satisfaction with their jobs. The instrument assesses each participant's

satisfaction level on five particular facets of their job including (1) the work itself, (2) supervision, (3) pay, (4) opportunities for promotion, and (5) interaction with co-workers (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969). Validity correlations between equivalent subscales of the JSS and the JDI ranged from .61 to .80 ($n=102$, $r > .19$ for $p < .05$) (Spector, 1985; Spector, 1997).

Maslach's Burnout Inventory

The final previously established instrument that was used in this study, the *Maslach Burnout Inventory-Human Services Survey* (MBI-HSS), measured burnout among respondents of the survey. The MBI-HSS, developed in 1981 by Maslach and colleagues, is the most widely used assessment for measuring the construct of burnout in working professionals (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Aguayo, Vargas, de la Fuente, & Lozano, 2011). Because Maslach and Jackson (1981) initially described burnout as a syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that frequently occurs among individuals who provide services to people in need, the original survey was designed for use with human service professionals (Maslach & Jackson, 1981, p. 99). Specifically, the MBI-HSS measures professional burnout across three subscales: *Emotional Exhaustion* (EE), *Depersonalization* (Dp), and *Reduced Personal Accomplishment* (PA). The 22-item instrument asks respondents to indicate their feelings and attitudes about their work in human services based on a Likert-type response scale. The responses range from never (0) to every day (6) (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 2011). The three subscales of the MBI-HSS are presented in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2 Subscales of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory*-Human Services Survey (MBI-HSS)

Subscale	Description
Emotional Exhaustion (EE)	Comprised of nine questions that explore feelings of being emotionally overextended and exhausted by one's work
Depersonalization (Dp)	Composed of five questions that examine the incidence of negative and impersonal responses toward others at work
Reduced Personal Accomplishment (PA)	Comprised of eight questions that describe a decline in an individual's feelings of competence and productivity at work

Internal consistency reliability of the MBI-HSS was assessed by using Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Based on a sample of 1,316 human services professionals who completed the survey, the alpha coefficients were as follows for each of the three subscales: .90 for *Emotional Exhaustion*, .79 for *Depersonalization*, and .71 for *Reduced Personal Accomplishment* (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 2011; Aguayo, Vargas, de la Fuente, & Lozano, 2011). Each of these scores represents a preferable measure of reliability (Hinkle et al., 2003; Creswell, 2014). Validity for the MBI-HSS was demonstrated in three ways. Using a smaller sample of human service professionals including police officers, teachers, and public contract workers, convergent validity was supported by a variety of measures (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 2011). First, individual respondent's MBI-HSS scores were correlated with behavior ratings independently made by the respondent's co-workers. Next, respondent's scores were correlated with the presence of specific job characteristics that contributed to experienced burnout. Finally, respondent's scores were correlated with other outcomes that were related to burnout. According to Maslach & Jackson (1981), all three sets of correlations provided substantial evidence for the validity of the MBI-HSS (Maslach & Jackson, 1981, p. 105).

Data Analysis

Following data collection, the researcher used statistical program SPSS Version 23.0 to analyze the data. First, the researcher ran descriptive statistics including mean, median, mode and frequency for all participants in the study. This helped to examine basic statistical assumptions that must be met to ensure data collection was appropriate. The researcher generated histograms, Q-Q plots, and scatterplots; and used appropriate statistical tests to check the data for normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. The figures demonstrated a strong curvilinear trend in the data, particularly with regard to the three Maslach scale variables (EE, Dp, PA). A curvilinear shape in the data violates the statistical assumptions of linearity and equal variance (Box, Hunter, & Hunter, 2005).

To correct for the violation of statistical assumptions of linearity and equal variance, the researcher performed a Variance-stabilizing transformation. According to Box, Hunter, & Hunter, a variance-stabilizing transformation is a data transformation that is specifically done to simplify the graphical data analysis and create a more linear representation of the data (2005). This transformation helps the data display a better approximation of a normal distribution. The researcher completed the variance stabilizing transformation by taking the square root of the emotional exhaustion scale total score (EETotSqrt), the square root of the depersonalization scale total score (DPTotSqrt), and the square of the personal accomplishment scale total score (PATotSq).

Once the variance-stabilizing transformation was complete, the researcher re-generated histograms, Q-Q plots, and scatterplots; and used appropriate statistical tests to again check the data for normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. Based on the new figures, the variance stabilizing transformation was successful in removing the curvilinear trends in the data and

stabilized the variability for regression analysis. The transformation created new variables and generated new graphs that demonstrated a more even distribution of the data, particularly in the Q-Q Plots. As a result, the researcher used the new transformed variables (EETotSqrt, DPTotSqrt, PATotSq) when proceeding with further data analysis.

Next, the researcher looked for any outliers in the data. An outlier is defined as an extreme value on a variable or an unexplained combination of scores that seems to distort the data (Hinkle et al., 2003; Babbie, 2010; Creswell, 2014). Babbie (2010) reports that outliers are usually the result of one of the following: (1) incorrect data entry of the variables, (2) missing code values in the data, (3) outlier is not from the intended population sample, and (4) outlier value is outside of the normal distribution. Only one possible outlier was identified in the data collected for the current research study.

Next, the researcher reviewed the research questions to decide which statistical analysis would best answer all the questions. To address research questions 2, 3, and 4, the researcher used a multivariate analysis. A multivariate analysis can be used to observe and explore more than one dependent variable at a time (Everitt & Hothorn, 2011). It is an extension of univariate analysis, however, it looks at the variables in a more overarching way. More specifically, multivariate analysis highlights the interrelatedness between and within sets of variables; this type of analysis provides more information about specific interactions between the independent variable and several dependent variables (Everitt & Hothorn, 2011).

For the purpose of the current study, using a multivariate analysis technique helped the researcher to explore the relationship between the independent variable of supervision and the three Maslach scales scores as the dependent variables. Therefore, the multivariate analysis was used to answer research questions 2, 3, and 4 respectively. Once the relationship between

variables was identified, the researcher was then able to either accept or reject the null hypothesis for each question.

To address research questions 1, 5, 6, and 7, the researcher used a multiple linear regression model. Linear regression is a common statistical analysis technique (Hinkle et al., 2003; Babbie, 2010). This technique is primarily used to study the relationship between a single dependent variable and one or more independent variables. More specifically, the purpose of linear regression is to predict the dependent variable based on the value of the independent variables (Hinkle et al., 2003; Babbie, 2010). For the purpose of the current study, the researcher used a multiple linear regression model to explore the relationship between the independent variables of supervision and the three Maslach scales scores and job satisfaction as the dependent variable.

There are two basic types of linear regression models (Montgomery et al., 2012). If the regression model has only one independent variable, the model is called a simple linear regression. Conversely, a model that includes two or more independent variables is called a multiple linear regression (Montgomery et al., 2012). In a multiple linear regression model, the variable whose value is to be predicted is known as the dependent variable (Y). The variables whose values are used for predicting the dependent variable are known as the independent variables (X, X_1, X_2, \dots) (Montgomery et al., 2012). Mathematically, multiple linear regression models are expressed in the following equation:

$$Y = A + B_1X_1 + B_2X_2 + \dots + B_kX_k$$

The appropriateness of a multiple linear regression model can be evaluated by using the F-test in the ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) table (Montgomery et al., 2012). If the value of F is significant, this indicates a linear relationship between the dependent variable (Y) and at least one

of the independent variables ($X, X_1, X_2 \dots$). Additionally, goodness of fit or predictive ability of the multiple linear regression equation can be used by examining the coefficient of determination (R^2). The value of R^2 always lies between 0 and 1. The closer the value is to 1, the better the multiple linear regression model and its ability to accurately predict the dependent variable (Y) based on the values of the independent variables ($X, X_1, X_2 \dots$) (Montgomery et al., 2012; Box, Hunter, & Hunter, 2005).

There are three types of multiple linear regression analysis, each of which is designed to answer a different type of research question (Box, Hunter, & Hunter, 2005). To effectively answer research questions 1, 5, 6, and 7 of the current study, the researcher used Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis (HMRA). HMRA is used to examine the relationship between a set of independent variables and one dependent variable, after controlling for the effects of other independent variables on the dependent variable (Hinkle et al., 2003). In hierarchical multiple regression, variables are entered in steps. In the first step, the independent variables that are being controlled for are entered into the regression. In the second step, the independent variables being examined are entered after controlling for the other variables. For the purposes of the current study, the researcher controlled for the variables of gender, number of years of experience in Housing and Residential Life (NumYrsExp) and age.

When using HMRA, the researcher decides the order in which to enter the variables (Box, Hunter, & Hunter, 2005). The decision to enter in certain variables in a certain order is decided after careful consideration of the problem and as a result of testing a particular hypothesis. The change in R square (or coefficient of determination) is examined each time a variable is entered and indicates whether or not the variables entered in the second stage have a significant effect on the dependent variable (Hinkle et al., 2003; Box, Hunter, & Hunter, 2005).

Using multivariate analysis and a hierarchical multiple regression analysis to examine the research questions of the current study allowed the researcher to make predictions about the dependent variables based on the independent variables. Both statistical analysis techniques assisted researcher in answering the research questions and identifying whether or not the relationships between the variables was statistically significant.

Chapter Summary

The focus of Chapter Three was to outline the quantitative methods the researcher will use to conduct the proposed study. The research design, research questions, information about the intended study participants and data collection procedures are all outlined in the chapter. Additionally, the instrumentation that will be used for the study was discussed. The chapter concluded with a description of the data analysis procedures. The results of the measures for each statistical analysis and research question will be presented in chapter four.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH FINDINGS

Chapter four presents the findings of the current research study; specifically, an examination of whether or not a relationship exists between supervision, job satisfaction, and burnout among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals. The first section of the chapter will restate the proposed research questions and provide specific demographics of the population sample. The second section will provide descriptive statistics for the data set including the measures of central tendency for all instruments used, variability of scores and standard deviations. The third and final section will explain the results of the multivariate analysis and the hierarchical multiple regression analysis used to test each research hypotheses.

Research Questions

This purpose of this study was to determine if there is a relationship between supervision, job satisfaction and burnout among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals. In order to conduct this study, three instruments were used: (1) *Synergistic Supervision Scale* (SSS) (Saunders, Cooper, Winston and Chernow, 2000), (2) *Job Satisfaction Survey* (JSS) (Spector, 1985), and (3) *Maslach Burnout Inventory* (MBI) (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach et al., 2011). There were seven hypotheses and seven null hypotheses for this study.

Researcher's Hypothesis One: There is a statistically significant relationship between the level of supervision received (independent variable) as measured by the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* and job satisfaction (dependent variable) as measured by the *Job Satisfaction Survey* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

Null Hypothesis One: There is not a statistically significant relationship between the perceived level of supervision received as measured by the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* and job

satisfaction as measured by the *Job Satisfaction Survey* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

Researcher's Hypothesis Two: There is a statistically significant relationship between the level of supervision received (independent variable) as measured by the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* and emotional exhaustion (dependent variable) as measured by the Emotional Exhaustion subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

Null Hypothesis Two: There is not a statistically significant relationship between the level of supervision received as measured by the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* and emotional exhaustion as measured by the Emotional Exhaustion subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

Researcher's Hypothesis Three: There is a statistically significant relationship between the level of supervision received (independent variable) as measured by the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* and depersonalization (dependent variable) as measured by the Depersonalization subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

Null Hypothesis Three: There is not a statistically significant relationship between the level of supervision received as measured by the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* and depersonalization as measured by the Depersonalization subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

Researcher's Hypothesis Four: There is a statistically significant relationship between the level of supervision received (independent variable) as measured by the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* and personal accomplishment (dependent variable) as measured by the

Personal Accomplishment subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

Null Hypothesis Four: There is not a statistically significant relationship between the level of supervision received as measured by the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* and personal accomplishment as measured by the Personal Accomplishment subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

Researcher's Hypothesis Five: There is a statistically significant relationship between emotional exhaustion (independent variable) as measured by the Emotional Exhaustion subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* and job satisfaction (dependent variable) as measured by the *Job Satisfaction Survey* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

Null Hypothesis Five: There is not a statistically significant relationship between emotional exhaustion (independent variable) as measured by the Emotional Exhaustion subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* and job satisfaction (dependent variable) as measured by the *Job Satisfaction Survey* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

Researcher's Hypothesis Six: There is a statistically significant relationship between depersonalization (independent variable) as measured by the Depersonalization subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* and job satisfaction (dependent variable) as measured by the *Job Satisfaction Survey* and among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

Null Hypothesis Six: There is not a statistically significant relationship between depersonalization (independent variable) as measured by the Depersonalization subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* and job satisfaction (dependent variable) as measured by the *Job Satisfaction Survey* and among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

Researcher's Hypothesis Seven: There is a statistically significant relationship between personal accomplishment (independent variable) as measured by the Personal Accomplishment subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* and job satisfaction (dependent variable) as measured by the *Job Satisfaction Survey* and among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

Null Hypothesis Seven: There is not a statistically significant relationship between personal accomplishment (independent variable) as measured by the Personal Accomplishment subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* and job satisfaction (dependent variable) as measured by the *Job Satisfaction Survey* and among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

Research Study Sample

The participants in this research study were *live-in* or *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals who were identified as members of the Association of College and University Housing Officers- International (ACUHO-I). These professionals were chosen from a membership list which included professionals that either lived in or very near by the residence halls or housing units they were responsible for overseeing on campus. The total number of eligible ACUHO-I members solicited to participate in the study was 2,086. All participants were sent an email which explained the research study in detail. The email also included an informed consent to voluntarily participate in the study. Participants then completed the online survey which included several demographic questions. Of the 2,086 emails that were sent out, only 274 people actually accessed the survey using the link in the email/informed consent invitation. Of the 274 people who accessed the survey link, only 138 actually completed the survey yielding a 50.36% response rate. After completing the survey, participants had the option to enter their

name and e-mail address to be considered for winning one of three \$25.00 Visa gift cards. The researcher only included the 138 completed responses in the data analysis.

Participant Demographics

Of the study participants, 58.0% identified as female, 41.3% as male, and .7% as Transgender (Table 4.1). In terms of cultural identity, .7% identified as Asian or Pacific Islander, 2.9% identified as Bi-racial or Multi-racial, 9.4% identified as Black or African American, 5.1% identified as Hispanic or Hispanic American, .7 % identified as Other, and 81.2% identified as White or Caucasian as indicated in Table 4.2. In regard to reported level of education, 9.4% held a Bachelor's degree, 3.6% held a Doctoral degree, while 85.5% had a Master's degree, and 1.4% indicated having another type of degree (Table 4.3). With regard to years of professional experience in Housing and Residence Life (not including graduate assistantships), 33.3% of respondents had between 1-2 years of experience, 29% had between 3-4 years of experience, 15.9% had between 5-6 years of experience, and 21.7% had 7 or more years of experience in Housing and Residence Life (Table 4.4). Participants' reported age showed variation within the population: 47.1% were between 22 and 27, 36.2% were between 28 and 32, 8.7% were between the age of 33 and 37 and 8.0% of respondents were over 37 as shown in Table 4.5. As it relates to the employing institution, 1.4% of participants reported working at a 2-year private institution, .7% worked at a 2-year public institution, 23.9% worked at a 4-year private institution, and 73.9% reported working at a 4-year public institution (Table 4.6). Participants were also asked to identify the size of the institution in which they worked. 7.2% of respondents reported working at an institution with a student population of 1,999 & under, 24.6% worked at institutions with a student population between 10,000 – 19,999, 29.0% worked at institutions with a student population between 20,000 – 49,999, and 39.1% worked at institutions with a student population of 50,000 or more.

20,000 plus as identified in Table 4.7. Lastly, .7% of respondents reported working at an institution outside of the US, while 99.3% of the sample reported working at an institution in the United States (Table 4.8).

Table 4.1 Gender Frequencies

		Gender			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Female	80	58.0	58.0	58.0
	Male	57	41.3	41.3	99.3
	Transgender	1	.7	.7	100.0
	Total	138	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.2 Culture Frequencies

		Racial or ethnic background			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Asian or Pacific Islander	1	.7	.7	.7
	Bi-racial or Multi-racial	4	2.9	2.9	3.6
	Black or African American	13	9.4	9.4	13.0
	Hispanic or Hispanic American	7	5.1	5.1	18.1
	Other	1	.7	.7	18.8
	White or Caucasian	112	81.2	81.2	100.0
	Total	138	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.3 Education Frequencies

Highest level of education completed					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Bachelor's Degree	13	9.4	9.4	9.4
	Doctoral Degree	5	3.6	3.6	13.0
	Master's Degree	118	85.5	85.5	98.6
	Other	2	1.4	1.4	100.0
	Total	138	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.4 Professional Experience Frequencies

Number of years of professional experience in Housing and Residence Life (not including graduate assistantships)?					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 - 2	46	33.3	33.3	33.3
	3 - 4	40	29.0	29.0	62.3
	5 - 6	22	15.9	15.9	78.3
	7 or more	30	21.7	21.7	100.0
	Total	138	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.5 Age Frequencies

Age					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	22 - 27	65	47.1	47.1	47.1
	28 - 32	50	36.2	36.2	83.3
	33 - 37	12	8.7	8.7	92.0
	Over 37	11	8.0	8.0	100.0
	Total	138	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.6 Institution Type Frequencies

		Institution Type			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	2-year private	2	1.4	1.4	1.4
	2-year public	1	.7	.7	2.2
	4-year private	33	23.9	23.9	26.1
	4-year public	102	73.9	73.9	100.0
	Total	138	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.7 Institution Size Frequencies

		Institution Size			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1,999 & under	10	7.2	7.2	7.2
	10,000-19,999	34	24.6	24.6	31.9
	2,000-9,999	40	29.0	29.0	60.9
	20,000 plus	54	39.1	39.1	100.0
	Total	138	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.8 Country Code Frequencies

		Country Code			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	INT	1	.7	.7	.7
	US	137	99.3	99.3	100.0
	Total	138	100.0	100.0	

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics are used to describe the basic features of the data collected in a research study (Box, Hunter, & Hunter, 2005). These stats are useful in helping researchers show and summarize data in an organized and meaningful way. According to Box, Hunter, and Hunter (2005), descriptive statistics do not allow researchers to make any conclusions regarding research hypotheses (p.23). Rather, descriptive statistics only describe the data and help present a simpler interpretation of the information being summarized (Box, Hunter, & Hunter, 2005).

Table 4.9 shows the descriptive statistics for the current study including minimum and maximum scores, means, and standard deviations for each instrument used in the study. A total of 138 ($N = 138$) participants completed the study survey. The *Job Satisfaction Survey* scores for this sample resulted in a minimum score of 56.0 and a maximum score of 204.0 (range of 148, $M = 133.630$, $SD = 30.3618$). The *Synergistic Supervision Scale* scores yielded a minimum score of 30.0 and a maximum score of 104.0 (range of 74, $M = 76.877$, $SD = 16.6696$). The *Maslach Burnout Inventory* scales (EE, Dp, PA) each resulted in a minimum score of 0. The maximum score for the Emotional Exhaustion (EE) scale was 42.0 (range of 42, $M = 15.739$, $SD = 10.0693$). The Depersonalization (Dp) scale resulted in a maximum score of 37.0 (range of 37, $M = 10.536$, $SD = 7.7272$). The maximum score for the Personal Accomplishment (PA) scale was 48.0 (range of 48, $M = 37.543$, $SD = 7.3793$).

Table 4.9 Descriptive Statistics for Study Instruments

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
JSS TOTAL	138	56.0	204.0	133.630	30.3618
SSS TOTAL	138	30.0	104.0	76.877	16.6696
EE Total	138	.0	42.0	15.739	10.0693
Dp Total	138	.0	37.0	10.536	7.7272
PA Total	138	.0	48.0	37.543	7.3793
Valid N (listwise)	138				

In multiple regression analysis, the underlying assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity must be satisfied to ensure the analysis is effective in identifying the relationship between the independent and dependent variables (Hinkle et al., 2003). Testing to make sure these assumptions are met helps the researcher to avoid Type I and Type II errors. One of the most common ways to ensure these assumptions are satisfied is through visual inspection of histograms, Q-Q plots, and scatter plots of the research variables (Osborne & Waters, 2002).

A histogram is a bar graph of the raw data that creates a picture of the data distribution. This allows the researcher to see specific patterns in the data including frequency of scores, skewness, and outliers (Hinkle et al., 2003). Histograms for each of the research variables were generated and examined by the researcher. The histogram for the *Job Satisfaction Survey* total score is pictured in Figure 4.1. The histogram for the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* total score is pictured in Figure 4.2. The histogram for the Emotional Exhaustion scale total score is pictured in Figure 4.3. The histogram for the Depersonalization scale total score is pictured in Figure 4.4. The histogram for the Personal Accomplishment scale total score is pictured in Figure 4.5. All

histograms indicate a normal distribution of the data as evidenced by the normal bell curve shape of the distribution line.

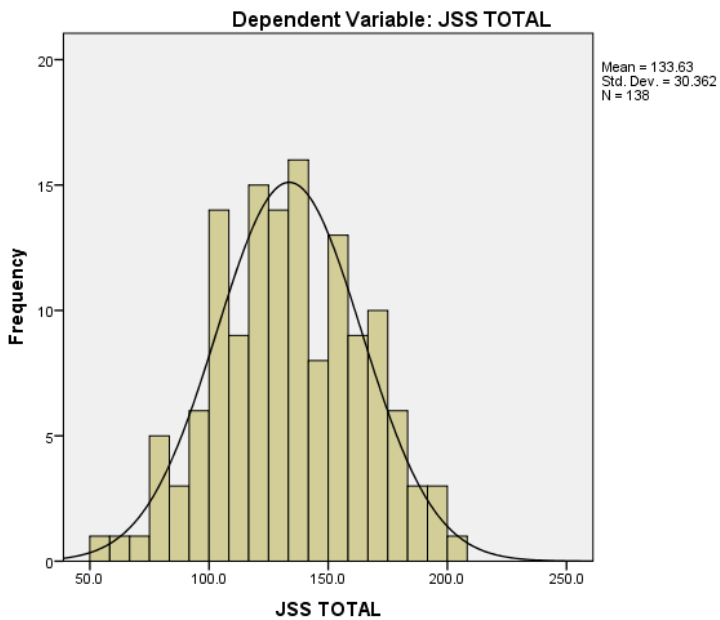


Figure 4.1 Histogram of *Job Satisfaction Survey* Total Score

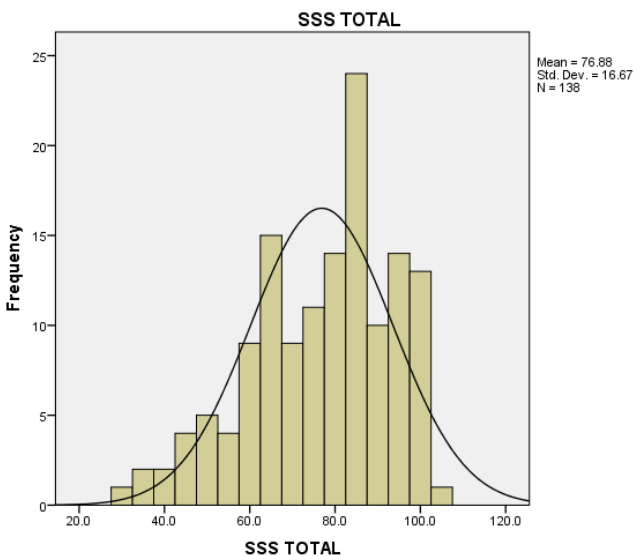


Figure 4.2 Histogram of *Synergistic Supervision Scale* Total Score

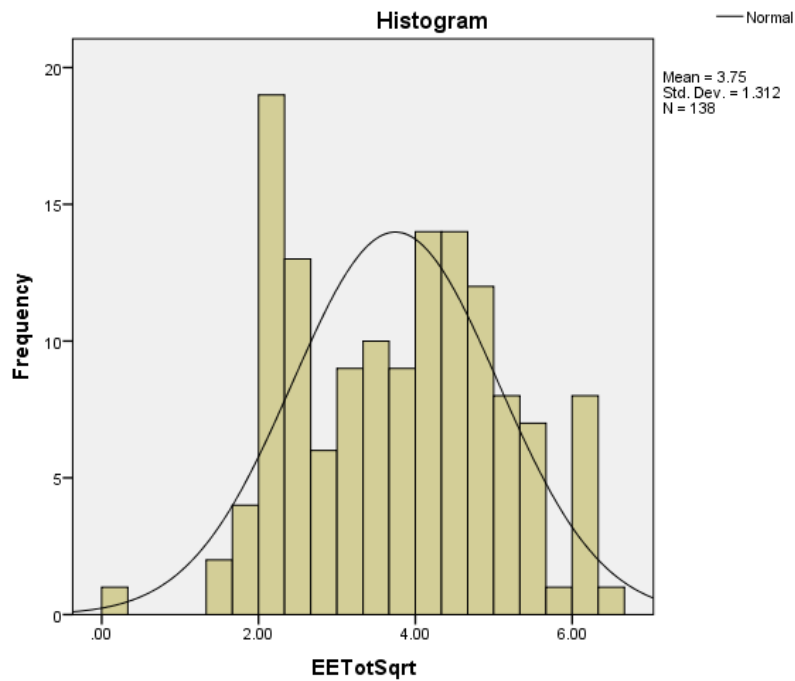


Figure 4.3 Histogram of Emotional Exhaustion Scale Total Score

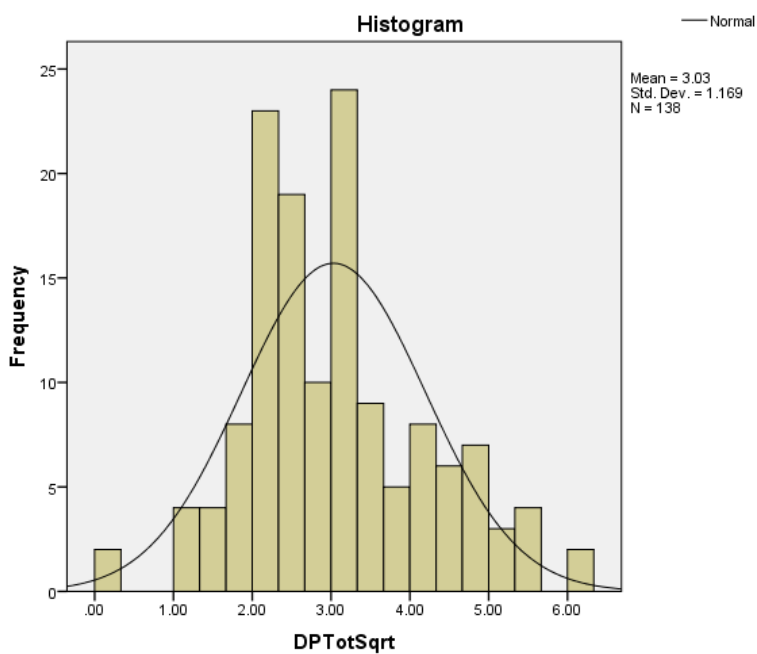


Figure 4.4 Histogram of Depersonalization Scale Total Score

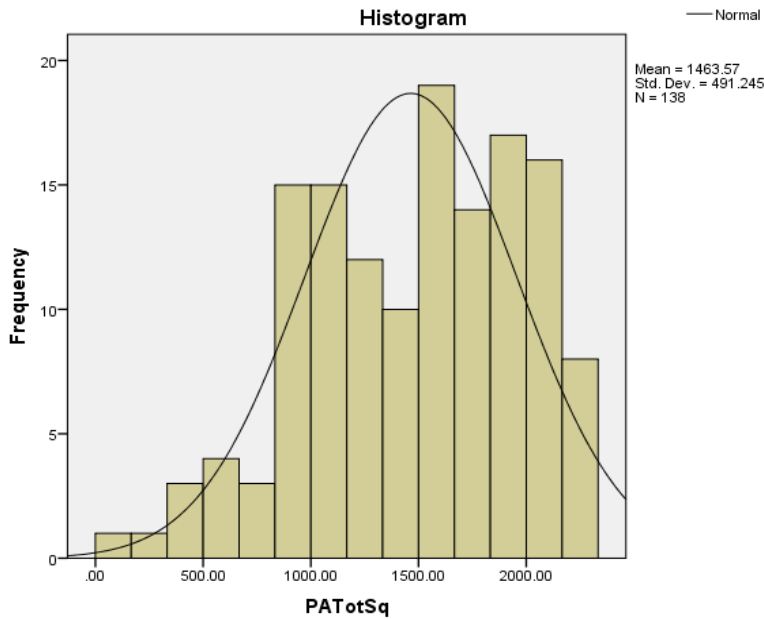


Figure 4.5 Histogram of Personal Accomplishment Scale Total Score

In addition to histograms, normal Q-Q plots were also generated for each research variable to ensure the data demonstrated a normal distribution. All Q-Q plots for the research study indicate a normal distribution since the points on the plots fall approximately on a straight line (Osborne & Waters, 2002). The Q-Q plot for the *Job Satisfaction Survey* total score is pictured in Figure 4.6. The Q-Q plot for the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* total score is pictured in Figure 4.7. The Q-Q plot for the Emotional Exhaustion scale total score is pictured in Figure 4.8. The Q-Q plot for the Depersonalization scale total score is pictured in Figure 4.9. The Q-Q plot for the Personal Accomplishment scale total score is pictured in Figure 4.10.

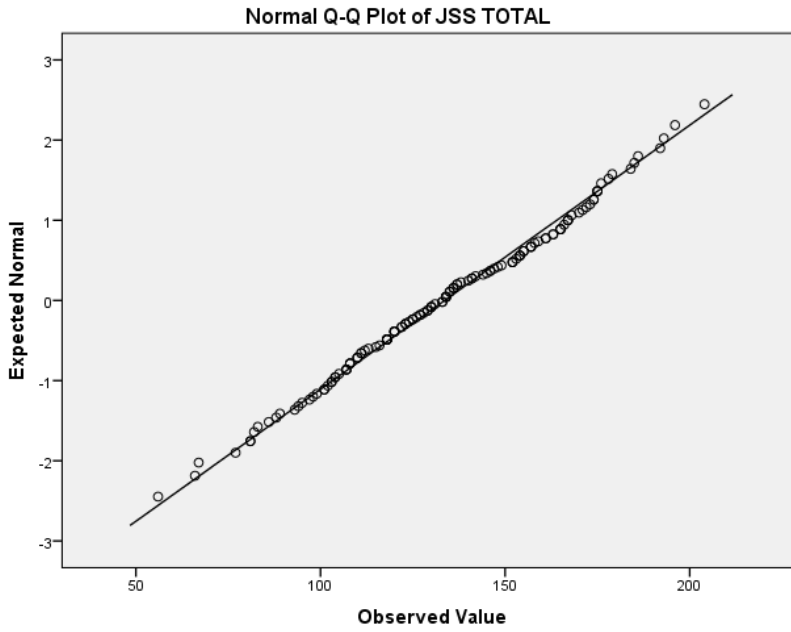


Figure 4.6 Normal Q-Q Plot of *Job Satisfaction Survey* Total Score

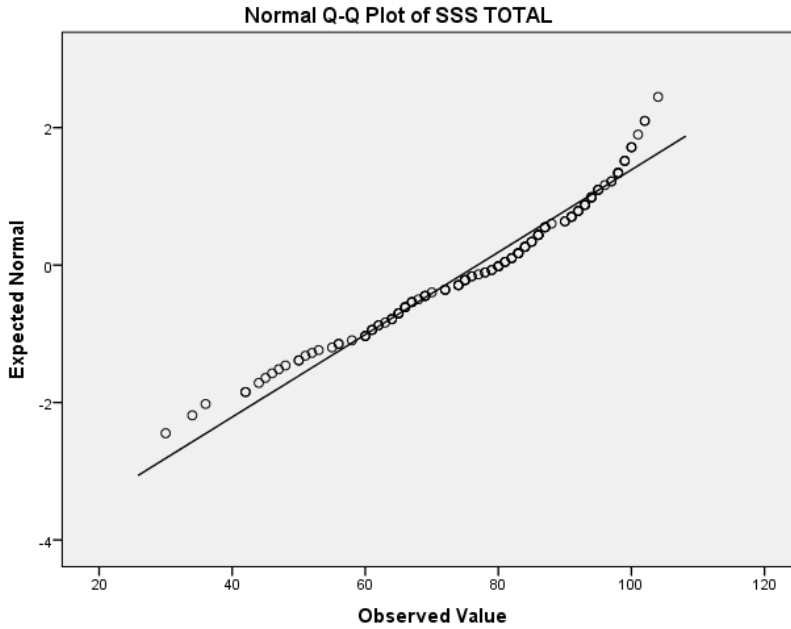


Figure 4.7 Normal Q-Q Plot of *Synergistic Supervision Scale* Total Score

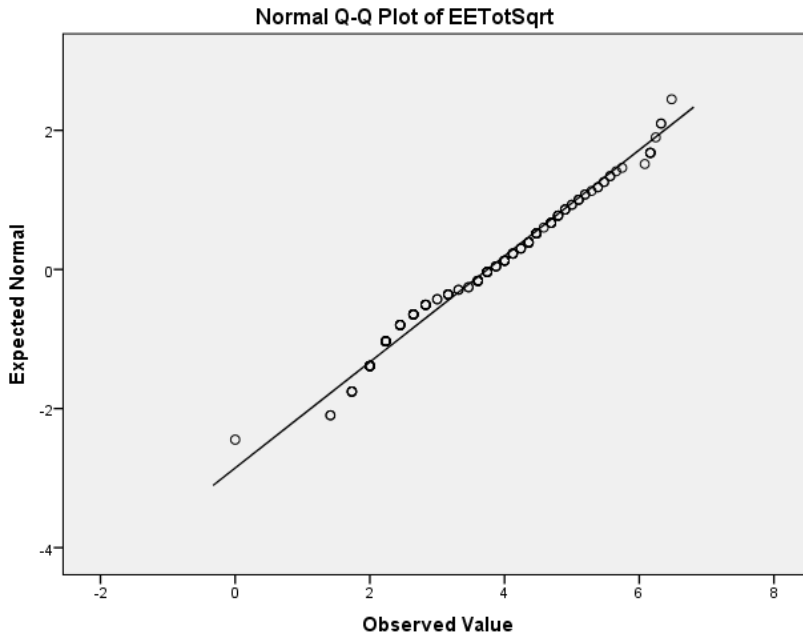


Figure 4.8 Normal Q-Q Plot of Emotional Exhaustion Scale Total Score

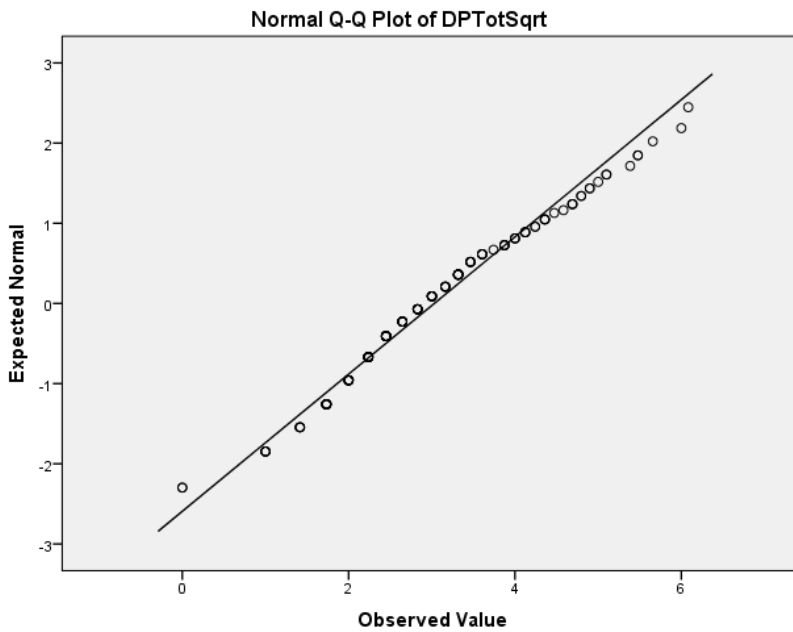


Figure 4.9 Normal Q-Q Plot of Depersonalization Scale Total Score

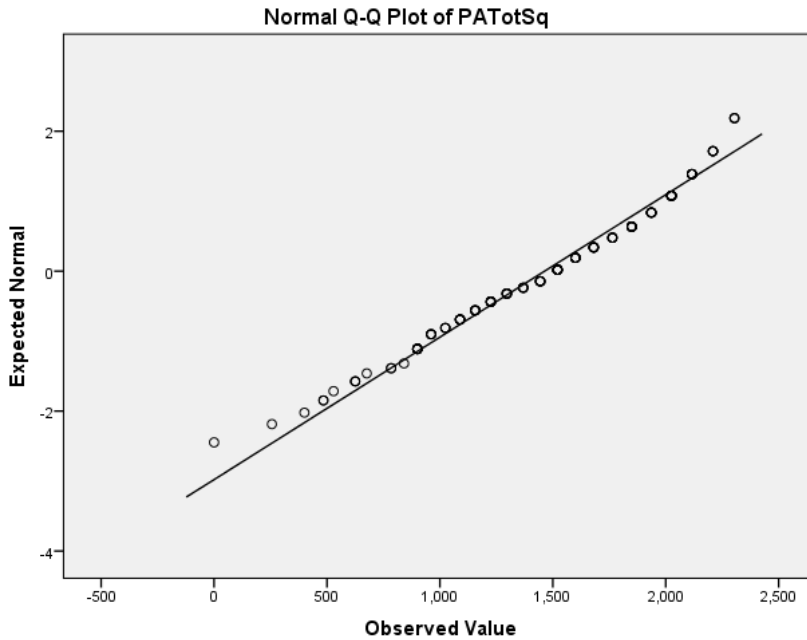


Figure 4.10 Normal Q-Q Plot of Personal Accomplishment Scale Total Score

Scatter plots of each research variable were also generated to ensure that a linear relationship of the data existed. These graphs are helpful in depicting the type and strength of the relationships between variables and also aid in the interpretation of the regression model (Hinkle et al., 2003; Osborne & Waters, 2002). The scatter plot for the *Job Satisfaction Survey* total score is pictured in Figure 4.11. The scatter plot for the Emotional Exhaustion scale total score is pictured in Figure 4.12. The scatter plot for the Depersonalization scale total score is pictured in Figure 4.13. The scatter plot for the Personal Accomplishment scale total score is pictured in Figure 4.14.

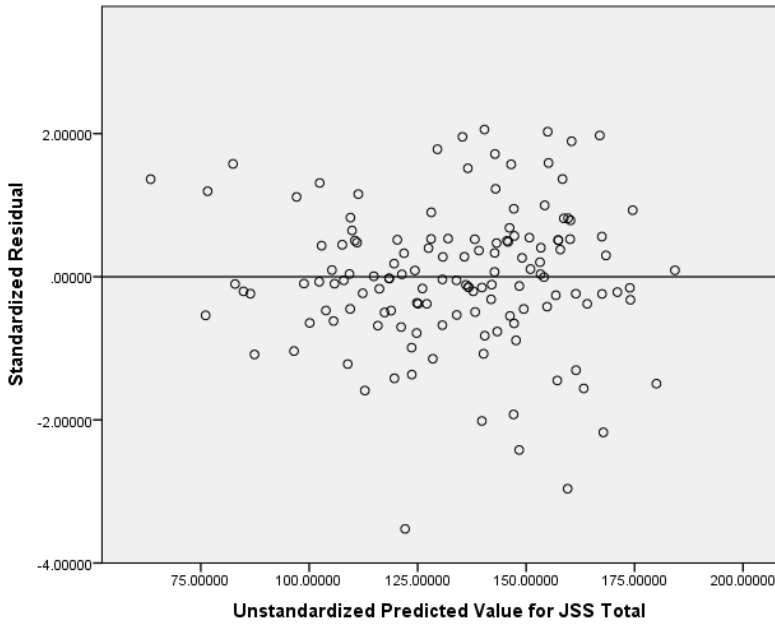


Figure 4.11 Scatterplot of *Job Satisfaction Survey* Total Score

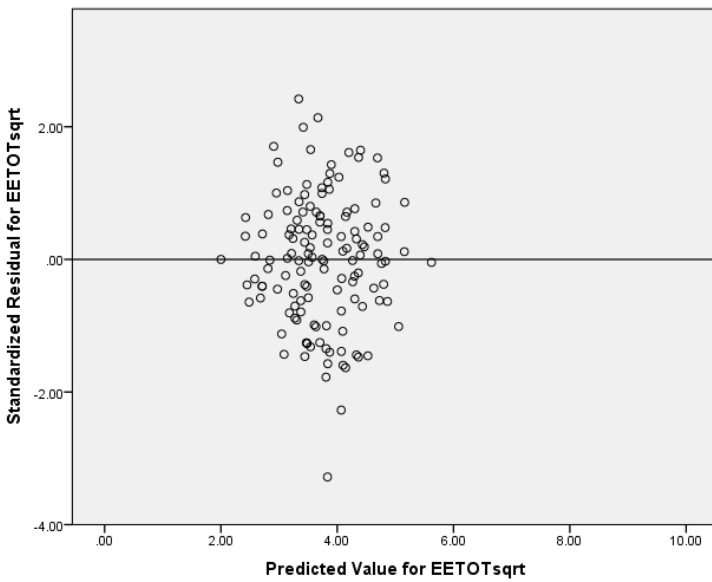


Figure 4.12 Scatterplot of *Emotional Exhaustion Scale* Total Score

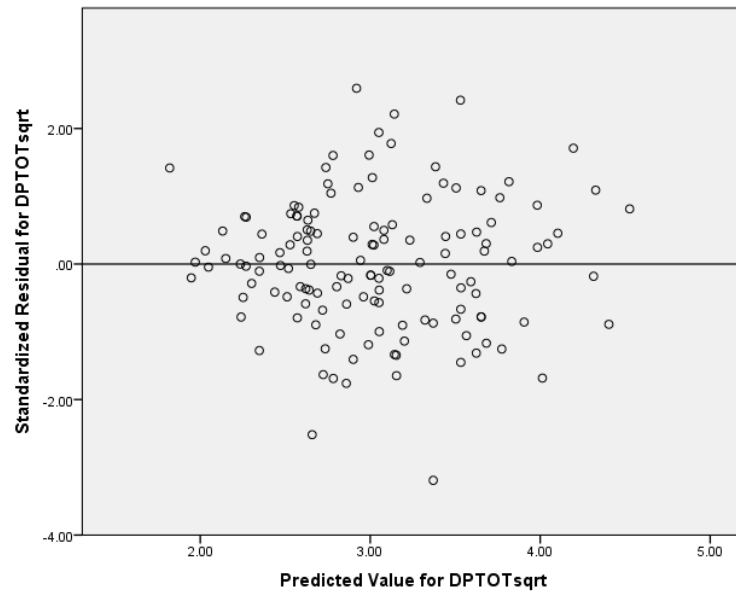


Figure 4.13 Scatterplot of Depersonalization Scale Total Score

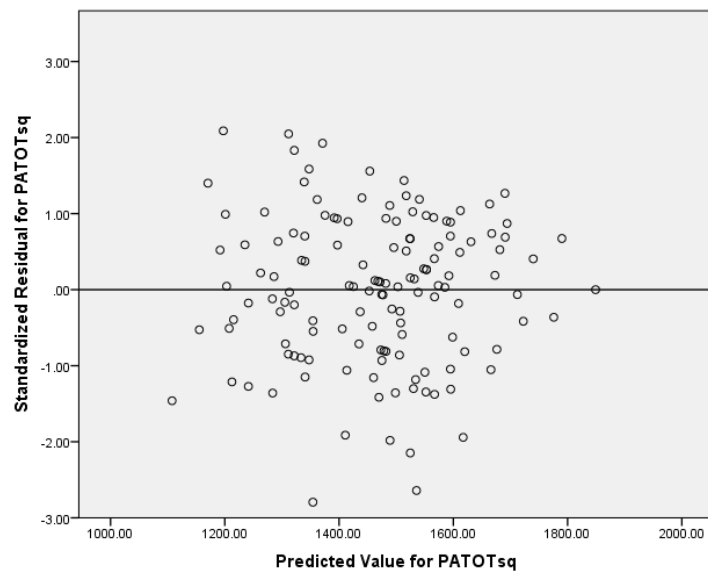


Figure 4.14 Scatterplot of Personal Accomplishment Scale Total Score

Correlation notes the association of two or more phenomena (Hinkle et al., 2003; Babbie, 2010). A correlation can range from +1 to -1. A positive (1) correlation notes that the phenomena are similar and a negative (1) correlation notes that they are opposite. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient is a measure of the strength and direction of the association that exists between two variables. In other words, a positive correlation means that as one variable increases, so does the other. A negative correlation means that as one variable increases, the other decreases. The Person's correlation attempts to draw a line of best fit through the data of two variables. The correlation coefficient (r), indicates how well the data points fit the model or line of best fit (Hinkle et al., 2003; Babbie, 2010).

Table 4.10 depicts the Pearson's correlation that shows the direction and strength of the linear relationship between each of the instruments used in the current research study. There was a strong positive correlation between the *Job Satisfaction Survey* total score and the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* total score ($r = .732, p = .000$). Regarding the correlation between job satisfaction and the Maslach scales, there was a moderate negative correlation between the *Job Satisfaction Survey* total score and the Emotional Exhaustion scale total score ($r = -.545, p = .000$). There was also a moderate negative correlation between the *Job Satisfaction Survey* total score and the Depersonalization scale total score ($r = -.462, p = .000$). A weak positive correlation was observed between the *Job Satisfaction Survey* total score and the Personal Accomplishment scale total score ($r = .380, p = .000$). Correlations between supervision and the Maslach scales were similar to those correlations with job satisfaction. There was a moderate negative correlation between the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* total score and the Emotional Exhaustion scale total score ($r = -.434, p = .000$). There was also a moderate negative correlation between the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* total score and the Depersonalization scale total score

($r = -.439$, $p = .000$). A weak positive correlation was observed between the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* total score and the Personal Accomplishment scale total score ($r = .237$, $p = .003$). All correlations were statistically significant at the .01 level.

Table 4.10 Correlations Table

		Correlations				
		JSS TOTAL	SSS TOTAL	EETotSqrt	DPTotSqrt	PATotSq
JSS TOTAL	Pearson Correlation	1	.732**	-.545**	-.462**	.380**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	138	138	138	138	138
SSS TOTAL	Pearson Correlation	.732**	1	-.434**	-.439**	.237**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.005
	N	138	138	138	138	138
EETotSqrt	Pearson Correlation	-.545**	-.434**	1	.753**	-.281**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.001
	N	138	138	138	138	138
DPTotSqrt	Pearson Correlation	-.462**	-.439**	.753**	1	-.284**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.001
	N	138	138	138	138	138
PATotSq	Pearson Correlation	.380**	.237**	-.281**	-.284**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.005	.001	.001	
	N	138	138	138	138	138

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

For the purpose of the current study, the researcher used a multiple linear regression model to explore the relationship between the independent variables of supervision and the three Maslach scale scores and job satisfaction as the dependent variable. The hierarchical multiple regression analysis yielded a Model Summary table (Table 4.11), ANOVA table (Table 4.12), and Beta Coefficients table (Table 4.13), which assisted in answering research questions 1, 5, 6, and 7.

The Model Summary table (Table 4.11) provides information on how close the data fits the regression line (goodness of fit). R square (R^2 or coefficient of multiple determination) is a

statistical measure explaining the percentage of variation and the strength of the association between variables. In other words, R^2 can be interpreted as the proportion of variance of the dependent variable that can be predicted by the combination of independent variables (Box, Hunter, & Hunter, 2005; Hinkle et al., 2003). The model summary table (Table 4.11) confirms the best model for explaining the proportion of variance of the dependent variable is model 2. The independent variables entered in model 2 (PATotSq, EETotSqrt, DPTotSqrt, SSS TOTAL) account for 62.8% of the variance in the dependent variable (JSS). The sig. F change in model 2 is statistically significant.

Table 4.11 Model Summary

Model Summary ^d									
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.596 ^a	.356	.341	24.6460	.356	24.638	3	134	.000
2	.792 ^b	.628	.617	18.7992	.272	97.314	1	133	.000
3	.799 ^c	.638	.618	18.7618	.010	1.177	3	130	.321

a. Predictors: (Constant), PATotSq, EETotSqrt, DPTotSqrt

b. Predictors: (Constant), PATotSq, EETotSqrt, DPTotSqrt, SSS TOTAL

c. Predictors: (Constant), PATotSq, EETotSqrt, DPTotSqrt, SSS TOTAL, NumYrsExp, GenderNum, YrsOld

d. Dependent Variable: JSS TOTAL

The Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is presented in Table 4.12. ANOVA is a test of the variation present in an experiment. The analysis specifically tests the variation of scores in the dependent variable that can be attributed to the independent variables, and is based on the F statistic. The F value is the mean square regression divided by the mean square residual (Box, Hunter, & Hunter, 2005; Hinkle et al., 2003). Table 4.12 confirms model 2 is the best at explaining the variability in the dependent variable (job satisfaction). Model 2 yields an F value of 56.089. Because the F value was very large, the null hypothesis was rejected. In other words,

there is a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction, supervision, and burnout in *Live-on* and *Live-in* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

Table 4.12 ANOVA Table

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	44897.417	3	14965.806	24.638	.000 ^b
	Residual	81394.735	134	607.423		
	Total	126292.152	137			
2	Regression	79288.850	4	19822.212	56.089	.000 ^c
	Residual	47003.303	133	353.408		
	Total	126292.152	137			
3	Regression	80531.533	7	11504.505	32.683	.000 ^d
	Residual	45760.619	130	352.005		
	Total	126292.152	137			

a. Dependent Variable: JSS TOTAL

b. Predictors: (Constant), PATotSq, EETotSqrt, DPTotSqrt

c. Predictors: (Constant), PATotSq, EETotSqrt, DPTotSqrt, SSS TOTAL

d. Predictors: (Constant), PATotSq, EETotSqrt, DPTotSqrt, SSS TOTAL, NumYrsExp, GenderNum, YrsOld

The last table presented that will assist in answering research questions 1, 5, 6, and 7 is the Beta Table (Table 4.13). The beta value is a measure of how strongly each predictor (independent) variable influences the criterion (dependent) variable. Standardized coefficients or beta coefficients refer to how many standard deviations a dependent variable will change, per standard deviation increase in the predictor variable (Box, Hunter, & Hunter, 2005; Hinkle et al., 2003). In other words, the Beta Table demonstrates how much job satisfaction will change based on an increase in each independent variable (supervision, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment). If the beta coefficient is statistically significant, the sign of the coefficient indicates whether the relationship between the dependent and independent variables is positive or negative. If the beta coefficient is not statistically

significant, it can be concluded that no statistical significance can be interpreted from that predictor.

Based on the results of Model 2 (Table 4.13), the Emotional Exhaustion scale total score (EETotSqrt) had a negative relationship with job satisfaction which was statistically significant ($B = -6.637$, $p = .001$). As a result, the researcher rejected the null hypothesis for research question five. Conversely, the Depersonalization scale total score (DPTotSqrt) had a positive relationship with job satisfaction; but the p-value was not statistically significant ($B = 1.692$, $p = .430$). This result means that there is in fact no observed relationship between the Depersonalization scale total score (DPTotSqrt) and job satisfaction. In other words, the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis for research question six. The Personal Accomplishment scale total score (PATotSq) also had a positive relationship with job satisfaction which was statistically significant ($B = .011$, $p = .002$). As a result, the researcher rejected the null hypothesis for research question seven. Finally, the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* total score had a positive relationship with job satisfaction which was also statistically significant ($B = 1.082$, $p = .000$). Based on this finding, the researcher rejected the null hypothesis for research question one as well.

Table 4.13 Beta Table

Coefficients ^a							
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	154.432	10.726		14.398	.000		
EETotSqrt	-9.687	2.454	-.419	-3.947	.000	.428	2.339
DPTotSqrt	-2.043	2.758	-.079	-.741	.460	.427	2.343
PATotSq	.015	.004	.240	3.294	.001	.909	1.100
2 (Constant)	54.219	13.044		4.157	.000		
EETotSqrt	-6.637	1.897	-.287	-3.498	.001	.416	2.403
DPTotSqrt	1.692	2.138	.065	.792	.430	.413	2.419
PATotSq	.011	.003	.177	3.166	.002	.897	1.115
SSS TOTAL	1.082	.110	.594	9.865	.000	.772	1.295
3 (Constant)	45.925	15.475		2.968	.004		
EETotSqrt	-6.765	1.940	-.292	-3.487	.001	.396	2.522
DPTotSqrt	1.877	2.166	.072	.867	.388	.401	2.492
PATotSq	.011	.003	.177	3.173	.002	.895	1.118
SSS TOTAL	1.099	.110	.604	9.999	.000	.765	1.308
GenderNum	-.716	3.276	-.012	-.219	.827	.917	1.090
YrsOld	-2.710	2.713	-.081	-.999	.320	.420	2.384
NumYrsExp	3.879	2.158	.146	1.798	.075	.423	2.362

a. Dependent Variable: JSS TOTAL

In addition to using a hierarchical multiple regression model to analyze the data and answer research questions 1, 5, 6, and 7; the researcher also used a multivariate analysis test to answer the remaining research questions. The multivariate analysis technique helped the researcher to explore the relationship between the independent variable of supervision and the three Maslach scale scores as the dependent variables. Therefore, the multivariate analysis was used to answer research questions 2, 3, and 4 respectively. This multivariate analysis yielded a Tests of Between-Subjects Effects table (Table 4.14) and a Parameter Estimates table (Table 4.15), both of which assisted in answering research questions 2, 3, and 4.

Table 4.14 depicts the Tests of Between-Subjects Effects which shows a statistically significant relationship between supervision (independent variable) and each of the three Maslach scale scores (EETotSqrt, DPTotSqrt, PATotSq,) as the dependent variables. There was a statistically significant relationship between the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* total score and the Emotional Exhaustion scale total score ($p = .000$). There was a statistically significant relationship between the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* total score and the Depersonalization scale total score ($p = .000$). There was a statistically significant relationship between the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* total score and the Personal Accomplishment scale total score ($p = .006$). All interactions were statistically significant at the .05 level. As a result of these findings which indicate a statistically significant relationship between supervision and each of the three Maslach scales, the researcher rejected the null hypothesis for research questions 2, 3, and 4.

Table 4.14 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects Table

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects									
Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^d
Corrected Model	EETotSqrt	61.212 ^a	9	6.801	4.985	.000	.260	44.863	.999
	DPTotSqrt	44.407 ^b	9	4.934	4.427	.000	.237	39.842	.997
	PATotSq	3013418.491 ^c	9	334824.277	1.426	.183	.091	12.837	.663
Gender	EETotSqrt	11.584	2	5.792	4.245	.016	.062	8.490	.734
	DPTotSqrt	3.688	2	1.844	1.655	.195	.025	3.309	.344
	PATotSq	196118.828	2	98059.414	.418	.659	.006	.835	.117
NumYrsExp	EETotSqrt	2.242	3	.747	.548	.651	.013	1.643	.160
	DPTotSqrt	.824	3	.275	.246	.864	.006	.739	.096
	PATotSq	134125.356	3	44708.452	.190	.903	.004	.571	.085
YrsOld	EETotSqrt	2.877	3	.959	.703	.552	.016	2.109	.196
	DPTotSqrt	1.822	3	.607	.545	.652	.013	1.635	.160
	PATotSq	797016.492	3	265672.164	1.132	.339	.026	3.395	.299
SSSTOTAL	EETotSqrt	40.388	1	40.388	29.601	.000	.188	29.601	1.000
	DPTotSqrt	33.471	1	33.471	30.030	.000	.190	30.030	1.000
	PATotSq	1855847.621	1	1855847.621	7.906	.006	.058	7.906	.797

a. R Squared = .260 (Adjusted R Squared = .207)

b. R Squared = .237 (Adjusted R Squared = .184)

c. R Squared = .091 (Adjusted R Squared = .027)

d. Computed using alpha = .05

The Parameter Estimates table is depicted in Table 4.15. This table shows the tests of Beta that demonstrate whether the statistically significant relationships between supervision and the three Maslach scales are positive or negative. There was a negative relationship between the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* total score and the Emotional Exhaustion scale total score

(B = -.033). There was a negative relationship between the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* total score and the Depersonalization scale total score (B = -.030). There was a positive relationship between the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* total score and the Personal Accomplishment scale total score (B = 7.082). All interactions were statistically significant at the .05 level.

Table 4.15 Parameter Estimates Table

Parameter Estimates										
Dependent Variable	Parameter	B	Std. Error	t	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval		Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound			
EETotSqrt	Intercept	4.253	1.323	3.215	.002	1.635	6.871	.075	3.215	.891
	SSSTOTAL	-.033	.006	-5.441	.000	-.045	-.021	.188	5.441	1.000
DPTotSqrt	Intercept	4.114	1.196	3.440	.001	1.747	6.480	.085	3.440	.927
	SSSTOTAL	-.030	.005	-5.480	.000	-.041	-.019	.190	5.480	1.000
PATotSq	Intercept	1307.450	548.785	2.382	.019	221.586	2393.315	.042	2.382	.657
	SSSTOTAL	7.082	2.519	2.812	.006	2.098	12.067	.058	2.812	.797

a. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

b. Computed using alpha = .05

After analyzing the results of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis (HMRA) and the multivariate analysis tests, all of the null hypotheses for this study were rejected.

Specifically:

1. There is a statistically significant relationship between the level of supervision received (independent variable) as measured by the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* and job satisfaction (dependent variable) as measured by the *Job Satisfaction Survey* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

2. There is a statistically significant relationship between the level of supervision received (independent variable) as measured by the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* and emotional exhaustion (dependent variable) as measured by the Emotional Exhaustion subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.
3. There is a statistically significant relationship between the level of supervision received (independent variable) as measured by the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* and depersonalization (dependent variable) as measured by the Depersonalization subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.
4. There is a statistically significant relationship between the level of supervision received (independent variable) as measured by the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* and personal accomplishment (dependent variable) as measured by the Personal Accomplishment subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.
5. There is a statistically significant relationship between emotional exhaustion (independent variable) as measured by the Emotional Exhaustion subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* and job satisfaction (dependent variable) as measured by the *Job Satisfaction Survey* among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.
6. There is not a statistically significant relationship between depersonalization (independent variable) as measured by the Depersonalization subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* and job satisfaction (dependent variable) as measured by

the *Job Satisfaction Survey* and among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

7. There is a statistically significant relationship between personal accomplishment (independent variable) as measured by the Personal Accomplishment subscale score of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* and job satisfaction (dependent variable) as measured by the *Job Satisfaction Survey* and among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals.

Chapter Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine if there was a relationship between supervision, job satisfaction, and burnout. The sample used for this study was *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals. The analyzed results demonstrate there is a statistically significant relationship between supervision, job satisfaction, and burnout among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals. Chapter Five of this investigation will explain the findings, study limitations, implications for practice, and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

In Chapter 5, the researcher summarizes the investigation of the relationship between supervision, job satisfaction, and burnout in *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals. This chapter is divided into three respective parts. The first section provides a discussion of the results. The next section outlines limitations of the study. The final section of the chapter focuses on implications and future directions.

Discussion of Results

The findings of the current research study indicated there was a statistically significant relationship between supervision, job satisfaction, and burnout among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals. Winston and Creamer (1997) define supervision as “*an interactive process designed to support staff as they work to promote organizational goals, and to enhance personal and professional development*” (p. 186). In the field of Student Affairs, the primary purpose of supervision is to provide the professional being supervised an opportunity to explore different areas of professional practice as well as areas for personal growth and development (Winston & Creamer, 1997). In order for professional supervision to be effective, it is imperative for both administrators and employees to be aware of the elements of effective supervision and to use a model of supervision that meets the needs of both the supervisor and the supervisee like the Synergistic model of supervision (Arminio & Creamer, 2001, Winston & Creamer, 1997).

Although supervision is a critical element for employee success in any organization, understanding employee job satisfaction is also essential (Hoy & Miskel, 2013). Locke (1969, 1976) concluded that particular facets of a job contribute to the overall perception of the job as fulfilling or dissatisfying. Herzberg (1959) and his colleagues concluded that job satisfaction

consisted of two separate, independent dimensions – satisfaction and dissatisfaction. In looking at both the *motivators* (intrinsic factors) and the *hygiene factors* (extrinsic factors) that contribute to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction, Herzberg (1959, 1966) concluded that one could not improve job satisfaction by simply improving the hygiene factors. Instead, job satisfaction can only be improved by increasing the motivators (Smerek & Peterson, 2007; Miner, 2005).

In addition to the relationship between supervision and job satisfaction, the current research study also explored the concept of burnout. Clinical psychologist Herbert Freudenberger took notice and began researching the concept of burnout in the early 1970s (Freudenberger, 1974). He defined *burnout* as a state of fatigue or frustration that resulted from professional relationships that failed to produce the expected rewards (Freudenberger, 1974; Freudenberger & Richelson, 1980). Several years later, Christina Maslach and her colleagues took their exploration of burnout even further (Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

Maslach and Jackson (1981) redefined burnout as “a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who do “people-work” of some kind” (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach, 2003, p.2). *Emotional exhaustion* occurs when employees feel overextended at work and are not able to recharge for another day (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998). *Depersonalization* refers to negative feelings and detachment in response to others at work. *Reduced personal accomplishment* affects self-esteem, individual work skill and job outlook (Maslach & Goldberg 1998, Maslach, 2003). Each of these components contributes to overall burnout which has been linked to mental health issues and physical problems such as headaches, irregular sleep, hypertension, and colds (Maslach & Leiter, 2008).

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between supervision, job satisfaction, and burnout. Both multivariate analysis and hierarchical multiple regression analysis were used to analyze the data gathered from participants. Each respondent self-identified as a *live-in or live-on* Housing and Residence Life professional. Regarding supervision, the findings of the current study revealed a strong, positive correlation between supervision and job satisfaction. Specifically, the researcher analyzed whether there was a statistically significant relationship between the level of supervision received and job satisfaction. The results of the data analysis for research question one revealed there was a strong positive correlation between supervision (as measured by the SSS) and job satisfaction (as measured by the JSS) ($r = .732$, $p = .000$). In addition, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis confirmed the relationship between supervision and job satisfaction was statistically significant at the .01 alpha level ($r^2 = .628$, $p = .000$). In other words, as the level of supervision received increases (i.e. more synergistic supervision), job satisfaction increases as well.

These results are consistent with scores reported during a similar study on synergistic supervision conducted by Tull (2006). The Tull (2006) study is frequently cited in research on supervision practices in Student Affairs. Particularly, Tull (2006) found a positive correlation between supervision and job satisfaction ($r = .302$, $p = .000$). The results suggest that new professionals who perceive their supervisors as synergistic are more satisfied with their jobs. Like the findings of the current study, the positive results are related to the practice of synergistic supervision by the supervisors of the respondents in the study. Tull (2006) noted that supervisors are more likely to be viewed as synergistic by their supervisees if they practice skills such as onboarding new staff into their role in the department and showing interest and support in

professional goals (Tull, 2004). These skills are similar to some of the supervisory behaviors that make up the synergistic model of supervision.

One of the best models of supervision for Student Affairs professionals is the Synergistic model. Synergistic supervision is a holistic approach to supervision that has a dual focus. It involves important responsibilities for both the supervisor and the supervisee within the process of supervision (Winston & Creamer, 1997). The main objectives of the synergistic approach are to guide staff members as they work to accomplish the goals of the department; and to support staff members in accomplishing their personal and professional development goals (Saunders et al., 2000). The model is holistic and focuses on building supportive supervisory relationships between the supervisor and supervisee. The Synergistic model of supervision highlights the behaviors supervisors should practice with Student Affairs staff including (1) concern about staff member's personal and professional development, (2) equitable staff treatment, (3) management that encourages productivity, (4) cooperative problem solving with staff, (5) systematic goal setting, and (6) two-way communication and feedback (Saunders et al., 2000 p. 183). The results of the current study indicate the more supervisors practice these behaviors, which are characteristic of the Synergistic model of supervision, the more satisfied staff members will be with supervision and their current positions in Housing and Residence Life.

In addition to job satisfaction, the researcher also explored the concept of synergistic supervision with regard to burnout. The researcher analyzed Maslach's concept of burnout as measured by the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* (MBI) (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach et al., 2011). More specifically, the researcher explored the relationship between supervision and burnout as measured by the three subscales (Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment) of the MBI. Research questions 2, 3, and 4, address whether or not

there is a statistically significant relationship between supervision and each of the three MBI scales. The results of the data analysis revealed there was a moderate negative correlation between the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* total score and the Emotional Exhaustion scale total score ($r = -.434, p = .000$). There was also a moderate negative correlation between the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* total score and the Depersonalization scale total score ($r = -.439, p = .000$). A weak positive correlation was observed between the *Synergistic Supervision Scale* total score and the Personal Accomplishment scale total score ($r = .237, p = .003$). All correlations were statistically significant at the .05 level. These findings confirm that as the level of supervision received increased (i.e. more synergistic supervision), both emotional exhaustion and depersonalization decreased. Conversely, as the level of supervision received increased, participants' personal accomplishment increased also.

These findings are consistent with results of Maslach's original research on burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach et al. 2011). A high degree of burnout is indicated by high scores on the Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalization subscales and low scores on the Personal Accomplishment subscale. A low level of burnout is reflected by a high score on the Personal Accomplishment subscale and low scores on both the Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalization subscales. An average degree of burnout yields average scores on all three subscales (Maslach et al. 2011). Respondents with a score of 24 or higher on the Emotional Exhaustion subscale are said to exhibit a high degree of burnout. An average degree of burnout is reflected by scores ranging between 14 and 23; while a score of 13 or less indicates a low level of burnout. (Maslach et al., 2011). With respect to the current study sample, the mean score for emotional exhaustion was $M = 15.73$, which indicated an average level of burnout among survey respondents. On the Depersonalization subscale of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory*, a high degree

of burnout is a score of 9 or more; a low degree of burnout is a score of 2 or less and an average degree of burnout is a score between 3 and 8. For the current research study, the mean score for respondents on the Depersonalization subscale was $M=10.53$. This is a considered a high score on this scale which indicates a high degree of burnout and may confirm that study participants are detached from their work in the field of Housing and Residence Life. A low degree of burnout as represented by the Personal Accomplishment subscale score is 43 or more. Scores for an average degree of burnout are between 42 and 36; while a high degree of burnout on this scale is 35 or less (Maslach et al., 2011). Regarding the current study sample, the mean score for personal accomplishment was $M= 37.54$, which indicated an average level of burnout among survey respondents.

There are number of factors that could be contributing to the significant relationship between supervision and burnout among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals. One reason could be because of the nature of the work in the field which typically involves being responsible for the health and well-being of under-aged college students on a daily basis. This heavy responsibility sometimes creates a high personal demand on the time and energy of *live-in* and *live-on* staff (Guthrie, Woods, Cusker, & Gregory, 2005). Over time, these the nature of the work in student services could lead to chronic personal distress, compassion fatigue, and emotional exhaustion among helping Student Affairs professionals (Thomas, 2013). Compared with other divisions in higher education administration, Housing and Residence Life professionals report some of the highest levels of job stress, pressure, and fatigue (Volkwein and Zhou, 2003).

Another possible reason for the significant level of burnout among *live-in* and *live-on* staff could be the unique and challenging work conditions that are a part of these roles in

Housing and Residence Life. Because many Housing and Residence Life professionals actually live in student residence halls or very near the campuses where they work, they are often required to work overnight on-call hours in addition to their regular daytime hours. In addition, *live-in* and *live-on* staff members are also required to plan and attend academic and social programs for students in their residence halls and on campus. Since the majority of these programs target college students, most of them are scheduled outside of regular office hours. As a result of continuous, non-standard work schedules, Housing and Residence Life staff often struggle with the feeling like they are never truly off duty. This feeling can often create high stress, decrease sleep, and cause both physical and emotional exhaustion among these professionals (Vaughn, 2014). As a result, many Housing and Residence Life professionals may have less time to focus on things that promote emotional health and wellness such as preparing nutritious meals, spending time with family and friends, and other leisure activities (Kleiner & Pavalko, 2010). These issues may contribute to an increase in emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and overall occupational burnout among professionals working in Housing and Residence Life positions (Vaughn, 2014).

The final purpose of the current investigation was to explore Maslach's concept of burnout with regard to job satisfaction. Specifically, the researcher explored the relationship between burnout as measured by the three subscales (Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment) of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* (MBI) and job satisfaction as measured by the *Job Satisfaction Survey* (JSS). Research questions 5, 6, and 7, address whether or not there is a statistically significant relationship between each of the three MBI scales and job satisfaction. The results of the data analysis for research question five revealed there was a moderate negative correlation between burnout (as measured by the emotional exhaustion scale

of the MBI) and job satisfaction (as measured by the JSS) ($r = -.545, p = .000$). This negative result means as emotional exhaustion increased, job satisfaction decreased and vice versa. The results of research question six also show a moderate negative correlation between burnout (as measured by the depersonalization scale of the MBI) and job satisfaction (as measured by the JSS) ($r = -.462, p = .000$). This finding is interesting because after the more robust HMRA, the model showed that the p-value for this interaction was not statistically significant ($B=1.692, p = .430$). In other words, there is no relationship between the depersonalization scale of the MBI and job satisfaction. The data analysis for the final research question revealed there was a weak positive correlation observed between burnout (as measured by the personal accomplishment scale of the MBI) and job satisfaction (as measured by the JSS) ($r = .380, p = .003$). A positive correlation indicates as personal accomplishment increased, job satisfaction increased as well. Again, the multivariate analysis confirmed the relationship between supervision and burnout was statistically significant at the .05 alpha level. This result means that along with supervision, the independent variables of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment account for 62.8% of the variance in the dependent variable job satisfaction.

The findings of the current study regarding job satisfaction among Housing and Residence Life staff could be the result of a variety of factors. Within the last ten years, there have been a number of studies focused on Student Affairs professionals and job satisfaction (Davidson, 2009). Overall, the studies concluded that a variety of factors, such as interpersonal relationships and teamwork, contribute to the job satisfaction of Student Affairs professionals (Davidson, 2009). *Live-in* and *live-on* staff members who feel they are a valuable part of their work teams tend to have good relationships with their peers and have social support which could promote positive self-esteem and job satisfaction at work (Vaughn, 2014).

Loyd (2005) looked at job satisfaction and teamwork with regard to characteristics such as gender, race, institution type, and salary level. She found that respondents with nine or more years of experience in their current positions were significantly more satisfied with their jobs than those with fewer years of experience in their current positions (Loyd, 2005). These findings were slightly different from the results of the current research study, in which the researcher also explored variables such as gender, age, and number of years of experience in Housing and Residence Life. When these variables were entered into the HMRA, the results were only slightly different. As a result, the researcher concluded that although the results are statistically significant, the variables of age, gender, and number of years of experience in Housing and Residence Life did not account for a large portion of the variance in the dependent variable job satisfaction.

Grant (2006) also explored job satisfaction in Student Affairs professionals. Similar to the current research study, he applied Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Motivation to a national sample of 477 mid-level Student Affairs administrators. Grant (2006) found that Herzberg's *motivators* – opportunities for advancement and the work itself – were the strongest predictors of job satisfaction. In contrast, the *hygiene* factors – job security and relationships with colleagues – were the strongest predictors of job dissatisfaction (Grant, 2006). Based on the current research study, and the body of literature in the field of Student Affairs literature, it is evident that more research regarding the impact of supervision on job satisfaction and burnout is needed. This research is necessary to improve these areas among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life staff, which is critical to the future of the field of Student Affairs as a whole.

Limitations of Research Study

One of the primary limitations of the current study was the instrumentation; particularly, the use of three self-report questionnaires including: (1) *Synergistic Supervision Scale* (SSS) (Saunders et. al, 2000), (2) *Job Satisfaction Survey* (JSS) (Spector, 1985), and (3) *Maslach Burnout Inventory* (MBI) (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach et al., 2011). Data collected using a self-report questionnaire runs the risk of being either inaccurate or incomplete (Creswell, 2014). Inaccuracy may be an issue if participants feel they cannot be truthful with their responses for fear that it may be a poor reflection on their current supervisor. There is also a possibility that participants were biased in favor of their supervisor, which also has the potential to influence study results. Additionally, using self-report questionnaires may yield incomplete survey responses. When respondents fail to complete the full questionnaire, their responses must be discarded. This issue could significantly impact the sample size needed for the study. (Creswell, 2014). To thwart this limitation, the researcher randomly provided three \$25.00 Visa gift cards as an incentive for participants who fully completed the online survey.

Another limitation of the current research survey includes soliciting participation via email. Although research suggests that online data collection methods are widely used in research, completion rates for online surveys are still lower than the use of conventional survey methods (Nulty, 2008; Davidson, 2009; Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2014). This issue was evident in the number of respondents in the current study. Despite the fact that a total of 2,086 email invites were sent to eligible members to solicit participation in the study, the researcher only obtained 138 (N = 138) usable surveys which yields a response rate of 50.36%. This limitation may be a result of the particular time the survey was sent out. Because of the busy

nature of the spring semester in Housing and Residence Life departments, some professionals may not have had adequate time to participate in the current study and respond to the survey.

The final limitation was the population used for the proposed study. The study sample was comprised of self-identified *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals who are members of ACUHO-I. Although membership in this professional association is very large, it does not encompass all *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals. There are many Housing and Residence Life professionals who are members of other Student Affairs professional associations. These professionals would not have had the opportunity to participate in the current study. Particularly, representation of professionals who work for privatized college housing corporations may be limited within professional associations. This limitation may impact the generalizability of research results (Creswell, 2014).

Implications

The findings of the current study demonstrate there is a statistically significant relationship between supervision, job satisfaction, and burnout among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals. As a result, there are several implications regarding graduate preparation programs, Housing and Residence Life professionals and Student Affairs managers.

Graduate Programs

Graduate preparation programs in Student Affairs seek to train students to become competent and proficient practitioners in the field (Janosik, Cooper, Saunders, & Hirt, 2015). These programs take on the task of educating students and provide a framework of the knowledge and professional skills necessary to be successful as a Student Affairs administrator (Tull, 2006). Most of these preparation programs focus about half of their coursework on Student

Affairs theory and practice. The remaining half of coursework is generally focused on counseling skills and techniques, general higher education administration, and the history and development of higher education as a whole (Janosik et al, 2015).

Although supervision of professional staff is a critical part of a position in Student Affairs, very little attention is given to the actual process of supervision during graduate preparation programs (Shupp & Arminio, 2012). This is a significant problem that highlights a gap in learning for graduate preparation programs in Student Affairs. The Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (CAS) was established in 1979 as a consortium of professional associations in higher education. The mission of the organization is to promote the use of its professional standards for the development, assessment, and improvement of quality student programs and services (CAS, 2015). CAS also collaborates with notable professional associations in the field (i.e. ACPA, NASPA, & ACUHO-I) to develop universally accepted standards and guidelines for competencies in Student Affairs graduate programs. With regard to the process of staff supervision, CAS standards do not outline a curriculum component that prepares graduate students to be successful in both receiving and administering effective professional supervision in the field (CAS, 2015). As a result, many students base their knowledge of supervisory practice on their own personal experiences with supervisors. This could be either beneficial or detrimental depending on the nature of the previous supervisory experience.

Often, because of a lack of training about effective supervision in graduate school, many Student Affairs professionals struggle with consistently modeling the practices of effective, holistic supervision. Considering that many new professionals leave graduate programs, get entry-level positions in Student Affairs, and may eventually progress into supervisory roles; it is

problematic that graduate programs do not offer more courses or opportunities for supervised practice in supervision. These opportunities for new learning could be beneficial for Student Affairs staff and help them to become more competent supervisors. Based on the results of the current study, graduate programs should consider adding courses to the curriculum that focus specifically on the process of effective supervision. In addition, it would be beneficial for graduate programs to offer a supervised practice experience in supervision that would give students the opportunity to practice supervision in a pedagogical setting. These changes to graduate program curriculums could assist with improved professional supervision across the field, which has been linked to an increase in job satisfaction and a reduction in burnout among Student Affairs professionals (Saunders et. al, 2000; Tull, 2006; Davidson, 2009).

Housing and Residence Life Professionals

Live- in and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals work very closely with students, parents, colleagues, and university partners. Professionals in these roles are faced with making lasting impressions on young college students that could potentially impact them for the rest of their lives (Fredericksen, 1993). This objective involves creating, fostering, and maintaining a positive, healthy environment where growth and development can occur within the residence halls and on campus (Schuh, Jones, & Harper, 2011; Belch & Mueller, 2003). The issue is that often, this objective is achieved at the expense of the health and wellbeing of *live-in* and *live-on* staff in the department of Housing and Residence Life.

For example, *live-in* and *live-on* professionals in the department are often expected to perform work tasks outside of conventional work hours. Non-standard work hours often leads to decreased job satisfaction, decreased commitment to departmental and organizational goals, and a negative attitude with respect to work (Spector, 1985; Belch & Mueller, 2003). Some tasks that

take place outside of normal office hours include meeting with students in crisis, talking with concerned parents, supervising student staff, shopping for program supplies, and attending and participating in student programs. As a result of these responsibilities that must be completed as a function of the job, these staff members have less time to engage in activities that promote self-care and personal well-being (Rath & Harter, 2010).

Some activities that may get neglected include socializing with family and friends, enjoying time away from the campus environment, exercising, and healthy eating. When professionals disengage from these types of activities over extended periods of time, they may become frustrated and disengaged from their work which might in turn lead to burnout (Whittmer & Martin, 2010). If professionals are burned out at work, it is plausible that physical signs and symptoms of distress are could result in poor decision making while at work or chronic absence from work (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998; Maslach, 2003). With this in mind, it is important for *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals to practice self-care and balance time for work and their personal lives accordingly.

Another implication for *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals includes taking ownership in the supervision process. Based on the results of the current study, professional supervision is most effective when it is approached with a dual focus. For example, the synergistic model of supervision highlights responsibilities for both the supervisor and the supervisee during the process of supervision (Winston & Creamer, 1997, Saunders et. al, 2000). Tull (2006) noted that synergistic supervision is an effective, holistic model of supervision that promotes job satisfaction and reduces attrition in the field of Student Affairs. Although the process of supervision is usually led by the supervisor, *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life staff should have an important role in the process as well. Staff members should

work with their supervisor to develop realistic and attainable goals for supervision. Outlining and continuously working toward clear goals and objectives that focus on both professional and personal growth and development can be beneficial to achieving success as a *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professional.

Student Affairs Managers

The findings of the current research study confirm the importance of supervision with regard to job satisfaction and burnout. Students Affairs managers who are responsible for supervision of staff play a critical role in the development of new professionals in the field. According to Kadushin (2014), there are three specific functions of supervision: (1) administrative, (2) educational, and (3) supportive. If one element is not being fulfilled, then the process of supervision is less effective (Kadushin, 2014). Tull (2006) found that supervisors who work to incorporate all three functions of supervision on a consistent basis see results such as reduced ambiguity and lower levels of occupational burnout among their supervisees. Stock-Ward and Javorek (2003) noted that supervisors who work closely with professional staff members should make it a priority to encourage and foster both personal well-being and professional growth and development of supervisees.

One of the best ways for supervisors to ensure their supervisory relationships are beneficial to staff is to practice an effective supervision model like the Synergistic model developed by Winston and Creamer (1997). The Synergistic model of supervision encourages supervisors to take an intentional and organized approach to the process of supervision. With this in mind, it is important for supervisors to make supervision sessions a priority despite hectic work schedules and increased responsibilities in the department. The Synergistic model highlights six important supervisory behaviors that should be practiced consistently in order to

create a challenging yet supportive dynamic between the supervisor and supervisee in which staff members can learn, grow, and thrive (Winston & Creamer, 1997). In addition, Student Affairs managers should be open to encouraging staff members to develop both professional and personal goals that can be continuously discussed during the ongoing process of supervision. Conversely, the inability of administrators to provide this type of effective, holistic supervision to staff members can negatively affect the professional competence and development of professionals within the department which may directly contribute to job dissatisfaction, burnout, and attrition for Housing and Residence Life professionals (Saunders et al., 2000; Stock-Ward & Javorek, 2003).

Recommendations for Future Research

With the completion of this study, there are a number of other investigations that can be conducted in order to add to the understanding of the relationship between supervision, job satisfaction, and burnout among live-in and live-on Housing and Residence Life professionals. This research can be conducted using qualitative, quantitative, or mixed method research methods and data analysis. Further research interests and questions the researcher would like to consider are:

1. Development of a graduate course on supervision that combines both theory and supervised practice of supervision.
2. Is there a relationship between supervision, job satisfaction, and burnout among Student Affairs professionals who reside off campus?
3. What factors influence the decision to pursue a long term career in Housing and Residence Life?

4. What factors contribute to mid-level Student Affairs managers' personal supervision style?

Chapter Summary

The purpose of Chapter 5 was to summarize the findings of the current research study regarding the relationship between supervision, job satisfaction, and burnout. The analyzed results demonstrate there is a statistically significant relationship between supervision, job satisfaction, and burnout among *live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals. The chapter was divided into three parts including the discussion of the results, limitations of the study and the implications for practice in Student Affairs. The chapter concluded with recommendations for future research in the field.

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APPENDIX A. INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL

ACTION ON EXEMPTION APPROVAL REQUEST



TO: Tracy Reed
School of Education

FROM: Dennis Landin
Chair, Institutional Review Board

DATE: March 6, 2015

RE: IRB# E9227

TITLE: The Relationship Between Supervision, Job Satisfaction, and Burnout in Live-In and Live-On Housing and Residence Life Professionals

Institutional Review Board
Dr. Dennis Landin, Chair
130 David Boyd Hall
Baton Rouge, LA 70803
P: 225.578.8892
F: 225.578.5983
irb@lsu.edu | lsu.edu/irb

New Protocol/Modification/Continuation: New Protocol

Review Date: 3/6/2015

Approved X Disapproved _____

Approval Date: 3/6/2015 Approval Expiration Date: 3/5/2018

Exemption Category/Paragraph: 2a,b

Signed Consent Waived?: Yes

Re-review frequency: (three years unless otherwise stated)

LSU Proposal Number (if applicable): _____

Protocol Matches Scope of Work in Grant proposal: (if applicable) _____

By: Dennis Landin, Chairman 

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR: PLEASE READ THE FOLLOWING –
Continuing approval is CONDITIONAL on:

1. Adherence to the approved protocol, familiarity with, and adherence to the ethical standards of the Belmont Report, and LSU's Assurance of Compliance with DHHS regulations for the protection of human subjects*
2. Prior approval of a change in protocol, including revision of the consent documents or an increase in the number of subjects over that approved.
3. Obtaining renewed approval (or submittal of a termination report), prior to the approval expiration date, upon request by the IRB office (irrespective of when the project actually begins); notification of project termination.
4. Retention of documentation of informed consent and study records for at least 3 years after the study ends.
5. Continuing attention to the physical and psychological well-being and informed consent of the individual participants, including notification of new information that might affect consent.
6. A prompt report to the IRB of any adverse event affecting a participant potentially arising from the study.
7. Notification of the IRB of a serious compliance failure.

8. SPECIAL NOTE:

*All investigators and support staff have access to copies of the Belmont Report, LSU's Assurance with DHHS, DHHS (45 CFR 46) and FDA regulations governing use of human subjects, and other relevant documents in print in this office or on our World Wide Web site at <http://www.lsu.edu/irb>

APPENDIX B. PARTICIPANT INFORMED CONSENT

Please read this informed consent in its entirety prior to agreeing to participate in this study.

Dear Student Affairs Colleague,

I hope the academic year has been a great one for you so far! My name is Tracy L. Reed and I am conducting a national study that will explore the relationship between professional supervision, job satisfaction, and burnout among *Live-in* and *live-on* Housing and Residence Life professionals. I am conducting this study for my dissertation research in Higher Education Administration at Louisiana State University.

You have been identified as a Student Affairs professional based on your most recent ACUHO-I membership and have been selected to participate in the study based on your position (***Live-in or Live-on Housing and Residence Life professional***). During the survey, you will be asked to provide information about your professional supervision experiences and your current level of job satisfaction and burnout. Additional demographic questions which concern you, your work, and your institution are also included. Please answer all questions as honestly as possible.

Information gathered from the survey will add to the body of knowledge about the impact of professional supervision on overall job satisfaction and occupational burnout within the field of Student Affairs. The survey will be administered online and available for you to complete from **May 15 through May 29, 2015**. The survey will take no longer than 30 minutes to complete. *In addition, three participants will have the opportunity to win a \$25.00 Visa Gift card upon completion of the survey.* Completion and submission of the survey indicates your consent to participate in the study.

I do not anticipate that taking this survey will contain any risk of harm to you. Furthermore, your participation is strictly voluntary and you may withdraw your participation at any time without penalty.

All information collected will be used only for my research and will be kept confidential. There will be no connection to you specifically in the results or in future publication of the results. Once the study is completed, I would be happy to share the results with you if you desire. In the meantime, you can review a brief research proposal about my study on the ACUHO-I website under *Sponsored Research*. If you have any other questions, please feel free to contact:

Tracy L. Reed, Principal Investigator
treed9@lsu.edu
985-413-2819

Or

Jennifer Curry, PhD, Co-Investigator
jcurry@lsu.edu
225-578-1437

Additionally, if you have any concerns about your treatment as a participant in this study, please call or write:

Dennis Landin, PhD
Chair, Institutional Review Board
Louisiana State University
Baton Rouge, LA 70803
irb@lsu.edu
(225) 578-8692

By clicking **START SURVEY**, you are verifying that you have read the explanation of the study and that you agree to participate. You also understand that your participation is strictly voluntary. **Thank you for your participation!**

APPENDIX C. PARTICIPANT DEMOGRAPHICS

Directions: Please complete the following general demographics survey by choosing the response that best pertains to you. (All responses will remain anonymous).

1. Number of years of professional experience in Housing and Residence Life (not including graduate assistantships)

- | | | |
|--------------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> less than 1 | <input type="checkbox"/> 3-4 | <input type="checkbox"/> 7 or more |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 1-2 | <input type="checkbox"/> 5-6 | |

2. Highest level of education completed

- | | |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Bachelor's Degree | <input type="checkbox"/> Doctoral Degree |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Master's Degree | <input type="checkbox"/> Other |

3. Age

- | | |
|--------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 22-27 | <input type="checkbox"/> 33-37 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 28-32 | <input type="checkbox"/> Over 37 |

4. Gender

- | | |
|---------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Female | <input type="checkbox"/> Transgender |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Male | <input type="checkbox"/> Other |

5. Racial or ethnic background

- | | |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Asian or Pacific Islander | <input type="checkbox"/> White or Caucasian |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Black or African American | <input type="checkbox"/> Bi-racial or Multi-racial |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Hispanic or Hispanic American | <input type="checkbox"/> Other |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Native American | |

6. Institution Type

- | | |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 2-year private | <input type="checkbox"/> 4-year private |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 2-year public | <input type="checkbox"/> 4-year public |

7. Institution Size

- | | |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 1,999 & under | <input type="checkbox"/> 10,000 – 19,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 2,000 – 9,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> 20,000 plus |

8. Institution Location

- ☐ United States
☐ International

VITA

Tracy Latonya Reed is a native of Thibodaux, Louisiana. Tracy received a double Bachelor of Arts degree in Psychology and Sociology from Fisk University in 2002. Tracy then went on to attend graduate school at Nicholls State University where she obtained her Master's degree in Psychological Counseling. Since then, Tracy has worked in a variety of settings providing mental health and counseling services as a Licensed Professional Counselor. Since beginning graduate studies in Higher Education, Tracy has served as a graduate assistant in the Department of Housing and Residence Life at Louisiana State University. Tracy has also worked as a full time Residence Director in Residential Education at DePaul University in Chicago, IL. Upon obtaining her Ph.D. at LSU, Tracy plans to continue her career path in Student Affairs administration and counseling services.